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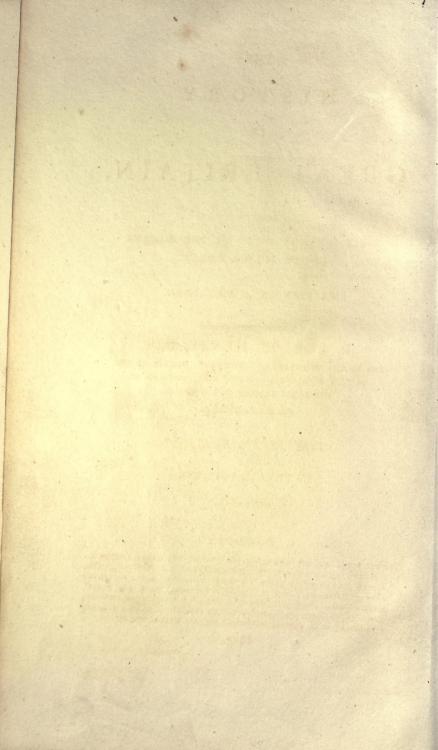
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HISTORY

OF

GREAT BRITAIN,

FROM THE

FIRST INVASION OF IT BY THE ROMANS UNDER JULIUS CÆSAR.

WRITTEN ON A NEW PLAN.

By ROBERT HENRY, D.D.

ONE OF THE MINISTERS OF EDINBURGH, MEMBER OF THE SOCIETY OF ANTIQUARIANS OF SCOTLAND, AND OF THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF EDINBURGH.

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HISTORY

GREAT BRITAIN.

BOOK VI.

CHAPTER II. SECTION I.

Ecclehastical History of England, from the Accession of Henry VII. A.D. 1485., to the Accession of Henry VIII. A.D. 1509.

THE ecclefiaftical transactions in the reign of Cent. XV. Henry VII. that merit a place in history, were not many and shall be related in as few words as poffible.

Cardinal Bourchier, who had been Arch- Convocabishop of Canterbury thirty-two years, died in tion. January A.D. 1486., and was succeeded by John Morton, Bishop of Ely, who had contributed greatly to the elevation of Henry to the throne. This primate convened a fynod of the prelates and clergy of his province February 13th, A.D. 1487., at St. Paul's, for the reformation of VOL. XII.

Cent. XV. the manners of the clergy. Complaints were made to the fynod, that the preachers of the order of St. John of Jerusalem, in their sermons. at Paul's Crofs, inveighed against the vices of the clergy in the hearing of the laity, who all, faid they, hate the clergy, and delight to hear their vices exposed. The Prior of St. John wascalled, and appeared before the fynod, and promifed to correct this great abuse. The invectives of these preachers, however, do not seem to have been without foundation; for many of the London clergy were accused in this convocation of fpending their whole time in taverns and ale-houses, of concealing their tonsure, and allowing their hair to grow long, and of imitating the laity in their drefs. They were feverely reprimanded for these enormities. This convocation granted a tenth of their benefices for one year to the King, and inflituted a new holy-day to commemorate the transfiguration of Christ, to be observed every year on the 7th of August."

Pafforal Letter.

Immediately after the convocation was difmiffed, the primate published a pastoral letter. for the reformation of the lives and habits of the clergy. In this letter the good primate doth not trouble his clergy with recommending a fingle virtue or reproving a fingle vice; but he charges. them, with great folemnity, not to wear short liripoops of filk, nor gowns open before, nor fwords, nor daggers, nor embroidered girdles: to be very careful of their tonfure, and to keep their hair always fo fhort that all the world may

fee their ears; and he threatens them with very Cent. XV. fevere censures, if they do not observe these injunctions. He recommends refidence on their benefices to all rectors and vicars who have only one living, and no dispensation, nor canonical impediment, nor lawful excuse for non-residence, that they may preserve their flocks from that rapacious wolf the devil.2

The diffolute manners of the clergy, especi. Papal bull. ally of the regulars, made a mighty noise at this time, and gave great offence to the laity, who were provoked to fee the immense possessions. bestowed upon the church by the mistaken piety of their ancestors, so shamefully abused. The court of Rome became apprehensive that this discontent of the laity might produce disagreeable effects. Pope Innocent VIII. fent a bull to Archbishop Morton in March 1490., in which he acquaints him, that he had heard with great grief from perfons worthy of credit, that the monks of all the different orders in England had grievously degenerated; " and that giving "themselves up to a reprobate sense, they led " lewd and diffolute lives, by which they brought "ruin upon their own fouls, fet an ill example " to others, and gave great offence and fcandal " to many." His Holiness then directed the primate to admonish the abbots and priors of all the convents in his province, to reform themfelves and those under them; and if any of them did not obey that admonition, he gave him authority to vifit and reform them by ecclefiaf-

Cent. XV. tical censures, to cut off incurable members by deprivation, and to call the fecular arm to his affiftance when it was necessary.3

Monitory letter.

In obedience to this bull the primate fent monitory letters to the superiors of all the convents and religious houses in his province, admonishing and commanding them by the authority he had received from the Pope, to reform themselves and their subjects, from certain vices, of which they were faid to be guilty, and of which he accused them. The monitory letter that was fent on this occasion to the Abbot of St. Alban's hath been published. If that abbot and his monks were flained with all the odious vices of which the primate fays in his letter they were notoriously guilty, they were a most execrable crew, and flood much in need of reformation. Some of these vices are so detestable, that they cannot be fo much as named in history. "You are infamous, (fays he to the Abbot,) for " fimony, usury, and squandering away the pos-"feffions of your monaftery, befides other enor-" mous crimes mentioned below." One of these crimes was, that he had turned all the modest women out of the two nunneries of Pray and Sapwell, (over which he pretended to have a jurifdiction,) and filled them with proftitutes; that they were esteemed no better than brothels, and that he and his monks publicly frequented them as fuch. His Grace feems to have been well informed; for he names some of these infamous women and their

³ Wilkin. Concil. tom, iii. p. 630.

gallants. The monks were at least as profligate as Cent. XV. their abbot: for befides keeping concubines both within and without the monastery, he accuses them of flealing the church plate and jewels, and even of picking the jewels out of the shrine of their patron St. Alban. He allows them fixty days to reform from all their vices, especially from cutting down the woods, and stealing the plate and jewels of the monastery; but if they did not reform in that time, and become very chafte, honest, and good monks, he threatens them with a visitation.4 What effect this monitory letter had on the abbot and his monks we are not informed: it is probable that it was not great. For we learn from the fame letter, that they had been feveral times admonished before to no purpose. When the monastics lived in idleness, wallowed in wealth and luxury, and were doomed to celibacy, the temptations to certain vices were too ftrong to be overcome by monitory letters, which, they probably confidered as things of courfe.

The avarice of Henry VII. was foon difco- Convocavered, and became univerfally known; and the clergy fecured his favour by granting him money from time to time. Both the convocations of Canterbury and York met, A.D. 1491., and each of them granted him a tenth of their

livings for one year.5

Henry VII. neglected no opportunity of de- Petition to preffing the house of York, and exalting that of the Pope. Lancaster, from which he pretended to derive his title to the throne. Henry VI. the last king

⁴ Wilkin. Concil. tom. iii. p. 632. 5. Ibid. p. 634, 635.

Cent. XV. of the house of Lancaster, had been buried first in the abbey of Chertfey, to which there was a prodigious concourse of people to behold the miracles that were faid to be wrought at his tomb. To put a stop to this, Richard III. removed the body from Chertfey, and interred it in the collegiate church in the castle of Windsor, to which the people had not fuch eafy access. Henry presented a petition to the Pope, A. D. 1494., for his permission to translate the facred remains of that pious king from Windfor to Westminster, a place of much greater celebrity, where many of the kings and queens of England lay intombed, though the dean and chapter of Windfor opposed the translation. A mighty king applies to a foreign prieft to overcome the refiftance of his own chaplains; fo fmall was the authority of kings, and fo great the authority of popes, over the ecclefiaftics of those times!

Still further to aggrandife the house of Lancafter, Henry, in the same year 1494., petitioned the Pope to canonife Henry VI., and tranfmitted a long lift of the wonderful miracles wrought by that pious prince, both in his lifetime and after his death; particularly that he had given fight to the blind, hearing to the deaf. strength to the lame, and had cured all other difeases. The Pope granted a commission to the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Bishop of Durham to examine into the fanctity of this royal candidate for canonifation, and into the reality of his miracles7. This affair, however, was

Wilkin. Concil. tom. iii. p. 633. 7 Ibid. p. 640.

never accomplished, and Henry was never canon- cent. xv. ifed, being as unfortunate after his death as he had been during his life; nor are we informed what put a stop to this pious project. The most probable conjecture is, that Henry VII. found that the canonifation of a king would cost more money than he had imagined, or was disposed to expend.

Archbishop Morton died A.D. 1500., and was Jubilee. fucceeded by Henry Dean, Bishop of Salisbury. This being the year of jubilee, prodigious multitudes crowded to Rome from all Christian countries, to partake of the pardons and indulgences that were then dispensed in great profusion. But as many good catholics, who lived in distant countries, wished to share in those benefits, but were not able to bear the fatigue or the expence of fo long a journey, the Pope Alexander V., to accommodate them, and to dispose of the spiritual treasures of the church, which are inexhaustible, fent agents into every country, furnished with sufficient quantities of these sacred commodities, which they fold to all who chose to buy them. One Jasper Pons, a Spaniard, was fent into England on this occasion, who managed this traffic with fo much address, that he collected and carried off a great mass of money, without giving much fcandal.8

One of the arts employed by the nuncio to get Bulk. money and avoid scandal was this: He gave out, that all the money he received for pardons, indulgences, &c. was to be expended in an expedition

Antiq. Britain. p. 332.

cent. XV. against the Turks. To procure credit to this affertion, he brought a bull from the Pope to the King, in which His Holiness acquainted him, that he and his brethren the cardinals, in a folemn conclave, had refolved upon an expedition against the Turks, those cruel enemies of the Christian faith; that they had fettled the plan of operations, and wanted nothing but money, fleets, and armies, for which they depended on the religious zeal of Christian princes and states. He acquainted him with the plan of operations; that the Kings of Hungary, Poland, and Bohemia were to invade Romania; the French and Spaniards to attack the Turks in Greece; and the English, Venetians, and other maritime powers, to make an attempt on Conftantinople with a ftrong fleet and army. He concluded with conjuring the King, in the most earnest manner, to engage with all his power in this most holy and pious undertaking. To this bull Henry returned a civil but evafive answer; the nuncio conveyed his money to Rome, and the expedition against the Turks was no more mentioned.9

Cent.XVI.

Henry Dean, Archbishop of Canterbury, died A. D. 1502., and was fucceeded by William Warham, Bishop of London. The disciples of Wickliff, then commonly called Lollards, had been fo long and fo cruelly perfecuted, that their numbers were much diminished; and many who had imbibed those dangerous opinions, carefully concealed them. It appears also that the Lollards at this time were not in general so ambitious of

⁹ Bacon, ad an. 1500.

the crown of martyrdom as they had been for. Cent. XVI. merly; for many of them, when they were accufed of herefy, and threatened with the cruel death inflicted on heretics, recanted, and burnt their faggot, to preferve themselves from burning. The fires, however, in which heretics were confumed, were not extinguished. Many, both men and women, were reduced to allies for the crime of herefy in the last years of Henry VII.; of whose fufferings those readers who take pleafure in perufing fuch shocking relations will find a full account in the work quoted below. 10

SECTION II.

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Ecclefiastical History of England, from the Accession of Henry VIII. A.D. 1509, to the Accession of Edward VI., A.D. 1547. Cuminiz Lon SD

THAT the state of religion and of the church The of England underwent great changes in the church re-formed by reign of Henry VIII. is univerfally known. But the flate. it is necessary to remark, that these changes were brought about by the state, and not by the church, and that therefore the history of them belongs to civil rather than to ecclefiaftical history; for this reason, the occasions, causes, and other circumstances of the most important of these changes, have been related in their proper places, in the first chapter of this book; and it only now remains to give a brief account of the transactions

Cent. XVI. of this period that were more strictly ecclesiastical, which may be comprifed within moderate limits.

The English attached to Rome.

Few nations in Europe feemed to be more firmly attached to the court and church of Rome, than the English at the accession of Henry VIII. The clergy, both fecular and regular, were univerfally devoted to the papacy, and more the subjects of the Pope than of their native fovereign. They defended all the doctrines, rites, and ceremonies of the church with much zeal, and perfecuted all who prefumed to call any of thefe in question with unrelenting cruelty. The laity, indeed, fometimes railed at the vices, and repined at the riches of their spiritual guides; but the far greatest number of them entertained no doubts of the infallibility of the Pope, or of the truth of any of the tenets of the church. King had been inspired by his instructors with the highest veneration for his holy father at Rome, and with the most violent hatred to herefy and heretics. This attachment of the King and the clergy to the fee of Rome continued unabated during the first nineteen years of this reign. The transactions therefore of that period were of the same kind with those of former periods, and do not merit a minute investigation.

Confeerated rofe.

The Popes of the times we are delineating feldom neglected to present some confecrated trinket that was much valued, and that coft them little, to those princes at their accession, from whom they expected fub stantial favours. Julius II. fent a confecrated rofe of gold dipped in chrism, and perfumed with musk, to Archbishop Warham

April 5th, A. D. 1510., to be presented to the cent. XVI. King at high mass, with his apostolical benedic. tion. Henry received the precious rofe, and more precious benediction, with profound reverence and excessive joy. 11

The convocation of the province of Canter- Subfidy. bury met at St. Paul's, February 6th, A. D. 1511., and made the King a more valuable pre-

fent, by granting him a fubfidy of £25,000. 12 Great profits accrued in those times to the Dispute

courts, from the registration and probation of mate and testaments, the administration of the goods of his suffraintestates, and the trial of causes in their several courts; and violent disputes arose about the division of these profits. In former times the teftaments of all persons were proved and registered in the court of the diocese wherein he had refided and died, and the feveral bishops and their officials had the administration of the goods of those who died intestate within their dioceses. Causes were also tried in the court of the diocese in which the parties refided, though an appeal lay to the archbishop's court. This arrangement had been established by a constitution of the papal legate Ottabon, and confirmed by uniform practice. But the late Archbishop Morton, being a cardinal, chancellor of the kingdom, and prime

minister, had great power, which he employed in making encroachments on the privileges and emoluments of his fuffragans and their courts. He pretended that the testaments of all persons,

archbishops and bishops, and the officers of their between

Cent. XVI. who had effects in different dioceses, or who died possessed of bona notabilia, should be proved and registered in the archbishop's court, and that the goods of intestates in these circumstances should be administered by his officials. Besides this, he brought almost all litigations into his own court (to which he gave the new name of the prerogative court) by prohibitions, advocations, and admitting appeals before fentence. innovations were opposed by his fuffragans, and by none fo keenly as by William Warham, who acted as advocate to Richard Hill, Bishop of London, who appealed to the Pope against them. But when Warham was advanced to the primacy, he changed his mind, and carried thefe encroachments farther than his predeceffor Cardinal Morton had done, and rejected all the proposals of his suffragans for an accommodation 13. This contest continued long, and was conducted with great violence and rancour; which is one proof, among many others, that the celibacy of the clergy did not diminish their love of money, or make them more indifferent about amaffing wealth.

Divisions among the regulars.

Divisions and disputes prevailed among the regular, as well as among the fecular clergy of England in this period, particularly between the Francifcans, or gray friars, and the Dominicans, or black friars, about the immaculate conception of the Virgin Mary, maintained by the former, and denied by the latter. This question was agitated feveral years with great warmth, and appeared to

be of fuch importance, that it engaged the atten- Cent. XVI. tion of the whole Christian world. Atlength, however, an end was put to this controverly by a decree of the Pope in favour of the Franciscans; a new festival was instituted to commemorate the immaculate conception of the Holy Virgin, and all who denied it were declared to be heretics. 14

If the clergy at this time were at variance among Diffoutathemselves, they were at still greater variance tion. with the laity about the immunities of the church; that is, of the clergy, and their exemption from the jurisdiction of the civil courts and civil magistrates. This had been a bone of contention between the clergy and laity for feveral centuries, and had fometimes involved both in very great diffrefs. This controverfy was revived and inflamed by an act of parliament, A. D. 1512., by which all who were accused of murder or robbery were to be tried in the civil courts, except bishops, priefts, and deacons; and if found guilty, were to be denied the benefit of clergy 15. This act was exclaimed against by the great body of the clergy as a most impious invasion of the immunities of the church, because subdeacons, acolyths, exorcifts, &c. were thereby fubjected to be tried for murder or robbery by laymen, and to be hanged if they were found guilty. The pulpits every where rung with declamations against this act; and the Abbot of Winchelcomb. in a fermon at Paul's Crofs, declared, that all perfons, whether spiritual or temporal, who had affented to that infamous act, had incurred the

¹⁴ Fox, vol. ii. p. 732.

Cent. XVI. censures of the church. This zealous Abbot also published a book, to prove that the persons of clerks, in the lower as well as the higher orders, were facred, and that they could not be tried and punished by the laity for any crimes 16. The temporal lords, and the house of commons, exasperated at this attempt of the clergy to emancipate themselves from the restraints of law, and from punishment for the greatest crimes, petitioned the King to repress their infolence, and compel them to retract their opinion. The matter was debated before the King in council, the judges, and a numerous audience, both of the clergy and laity. The Abbot of Winchelcomb was advocate for the immunities which the church and clergy claimed; and Dr. Standish, one of the King's spiritual council, pleaded against them. After a long debate, the audience in general being convinced that Dr. Standish had the better of the argument, requested the bishops to command the Abbot to recant his opinion. But this they positively refused; declaring, that it was their own opinion, and the doctrine of holy church, 17

Richard Hunne's affair.

When things were in this state, an event happened that inflamed the animofity between the clergy and the laity, especially in London. One Richard Hunne, a respectable citizen, was sued by the priest of his parish, in the legate's court, for a mortuary, which he pretended to be due to him for the burial of a child of his only five weeks old. Hunne, by the advice of his council,

¹⁶ Burnet's Hift. Reform. vol. i. p. 12, 13.

fued the prieft in the king's bench, in a premu- Cent. XVI. nire, for bringing him before a foreign court. The clergy, to extricate the prieft, accused Hunne of herefy, and imprisoned him in the Lollard's Tower at St. Paul's, where he was found hanged December 4th, A. D. 1514. The clergy gave out that he had hanged himself. But this was not believed, and the coroner's inquest, after a careful examination of the body, the posture in which it was found, and other circumstances, brought in their verdict, wilful murder by those who had the charge of the prison. Many witnesses were examined, whose evidence tended to criminate the bishops, Sumner, and the bellringer, and Sumner afterwards confessed that the chancellor Doctor Horsey, himself, and the bell-ringer, had first murdered Hunne, and then hung up his body against the wall. 18

This affair made a prodigious noise in London, Burnt for herefy and excited violent outcries against the clergy, after his which were rendered more vehement by the me-death. thod that was taken to filence them. Fitz-James, Bishop of London, and other prelates with whom he confulted, imagined, that if Hunne was convicted of herefy, the people would no longer efpouse his cause, or lament his fate. That Bishop, therefore, attended by the Bishops of Durham and Lincoln, twenty-five abbots, priors and doctors, fix notaries, and great multitudes of the fecular and regular clergy held a court at St. Paul's, December 16th, for the trial of one who had been ten days in his grave. At that court Richard

Burnet's Hift. Reform. vol. i. p. 14. Fox. vol. ii. p. 739-744. Hunne

Cent. XVI. Hunne was accused of various heresies contained in the preface to Wickliff's bible, which had been found in his house, and was esteemed a sufficient proof that he had held all these heresies. Proclamation was made, that if any one chufed to answer for the accused he should appear immediately. No counfel chose to plead the cause of fuch a client before fuch a court. Hunne was pronounced a heretic, his body was taken up December 20th, and burnt in Smithfield 19. The people were shocked at this horrid spectacle, and greatly difgusted with their spiritual guides.

His chiled.

The discontent excited by these acts of cruelty drenreftor- was not confined to the people of London. The parliament that met February 5th, A. D. 1515., restored the children of Richard Hunne to all their father's effects: and the house of commons fent up a bill to the house of peers, April 3d, for bringing his murderers, particularly Doctor Horfey, to justice. But the clergy were too numerous in that house for such a bill to pass. The Bishop of London made a violent declamation against it; in which he affirmed, that Hunne had hanged himself; that the coroner and his jury were perjured eaitiffs; and that if the bill passed, the heretics would become so bold, that he would not be fafe in his own house. The bill was thrown out after the first reading.20

Dr. Standish questioned.

The clergy were greatly offended with Doctor Standish, for his pleading against their immunities; and the convocation, which fat at the fame time

Burnet's Hift. Reform. vol.i. p. 14. Fox. vol. ii. p. 739-744. lbid.

with the parliament, brought him before them, cent.XVI. and threatened him with the feverest censures. Expecting neither mercy nor justice from his enraged brethren, he implored the King to protect him from the danger he had incurred by acting in the capacity of his spiritual counsel. The clergy affured the King, that they did not intend to question Doctor Standish for any thing he had faid in the late conference, but for certain lectures at Paul's Cross; in which he had advanced. many things contrary to the law of God and the liberties of holy church, which they were bound to maintain. On the other hand, the temporal lords, the judges, and the house of commons, petitioned the King to preferve the undoubted rights of his crown, and his temporal jurifdiction over all his subjects, and to protect Doctor Standish from the malice of his enemies. 21

These petitions threw the King into great per- Confeplexity. He had a great veneration for the church diffutes. and clergy, but he was also fond of power, and tenacious of his rights. On this occasion he confulted Doctor Veysey, dean of his chapel, (of whose learning and probity he entertained a good opinion, and charged him, upon his allegiance, to give him his real fentiments on this important question. Having taken some time to consider, the Doctor declared to the King, upon his faith and conscience, that the trial of clerks by the fecular judges, for crimes committed against the laws of the land, was neither contrary to the law of God, nor inconfistent with the true liber-

Cent. XVI. ties of the church. This opinion, and the arguments with which it was supported, gave Henry great satisfaction. Two very solemn conferences were held before him, and many of the prelates, lords, and judges, and principal men, both of the clergy and laity, in which this question was debated at great length, and with no little warmth by Doctor Standish and Doctor Veysey on one fide, and the champions for the immunities of the church on the other. At the last of these conferences, when the greatest part of the audience feemed ready to adopt the opinion of the two doctors, Cardinal Wolfey fell upon his knees before the King, and most earnestly entreated him to refer the matter in dispute to the Pope, to avoid his incurring the censures of the church. On which the King faid, that he thought Doctor Standish and others of his council had answered all their arguments fully. The Lord-chief-justice Fineux observed, that bishops could not try clerks for capital offences; and if they were not amenable to the civil courts, they might commit the greatest crimes with impunity. The King then, addressing himself to the clergy, said, Know you well, that we will maintain the right " of our crown and our temporal jurisdiction. " as well in this as in all other points, in as " ample manner as any of our progenitors have done before our time." The Archbishop of Canterbury, alarmed at this declaration, fell on his knees and begged that the final determination of this question might be delayed till they had time to confult the court of Rome.

But to this no answer was given; the King re- Cent. XVI. tired, and the conference ended. 22

A warrant being iffued for apprehending Doc- Compretor Horsey, the Bishop of London's chancellor. in order to his being tried in the king's bench for the murder of Richard Hunne, he absconded. and was concealed in the archbishop's palace at Lambeth. At last, when this affair threatened very ferious confequences, it was terminated by a compromife, most probably fuggested by the clergy. It was agreed, that the convocation should drop all proceedings against Doctor Standish; that Doctor Horsey should appear in the court of king's bench, and plead not guilty; and that the attorney-general should acknowledge the truth of this plea, to prevent a trial. All this was accordingly done; and in those days it was thought no fmall triumph, that a great king had brought a clerk to the bar, though he did not, or durft not, bring him to trial. 23

Though the clergy in this period were divided Perfecuamong themselves, and at variance with the laity. there was one thing in which they agreed too well, and were too well feconded by the fecular arm; the perfecution of the unhappy Lollards. The infernal spirit of persecution, which had languished in fome degree in the preceding reign, raged with great violence in the first nineteen years of the present reign; for though Henry VIII. was tenacious of the rights of his crown, he had no regard to the rights of conscience, and no mercy on those who presumed to judge for themselves

Cent. XVI. in matters of religion, or to diffent in the leaft from the established system of belief and worship. To give a minute detail of all the horrid cruelties that were inflicted on those who were condemned as heretics for reading the scriptures, for denying transubstantiation, purgatory, the worship of images, the invocation of faints, the infallibility of the Pope, or any other tenet of the church, would not only fwell this fection to a most inconvenient fize, but would greatly distress every reader of feeling and humanity. It is fufficient to remark, that all who were convicted of what was then called herefy, both women and men, old and young, and adhered to their opinions, were condemned as obstinate heretics, delivered to the fecular arm, and burnt to ashes, without mercy, and without exception. The number of those unhappy victims was considerable, particularly in the diocefe of Lincoln. under Bishop Langland, the King's confessor, and a most cruel persecutor 24. Those who. through fear of the painful death with which they were threatened, abjured or renounced their opinions, (which were very many,) had various penances prescribed to them, and various punishments inflicted upon them, of which some were very fevere and ignominious 25. Some of the English prelates at least seem to have resolved to extinguish herefy, by the total extirpation of heretics. But in this they did not fucceed. On the contrary, the more fiercely perfecution raged, the more herefy and heretics increased;

²⁴ Fox, p. 744 - 750.

the greater was the compassion of the people for Cent.XIV. the fufferers, and their indignation against the perfecutors.

Henry VIII. was not only a most dutiful fon, Henry but a most zealous champion of the church of writes against Rome in the first half of his reign, and fought Luther. the battles of the Pope, both by his fword and by his pen. With this last instrument he took the field against Martin Luther, by his book, de Septem Sacramentis, of the Seven Sacraments. A fplendid copy of this royal performance was prefented to the Pope in full confiftory in October, A.D. 1521., by Doctor John Clark, Dean of Windfor, the King's ambaffador at Rome, and received with great respect and ceremony. The Pope affured the ambaffador, that he would recommend the book to all Christian princes, and publish it with as honourable a testimony from the holy fee as ever was given to the works of St. Auftin and St. Jerome; and that he would immediately adorn the King with fome honourable title, as a reward for his religious zeal and learned labours. Accordingly His Holiness, by a bull, in the same month bestowed on Henry the title of Defender of the Faith; and in the same bull he extolled his book, as a most wonderful performance, fprinkled with the dew of divine grace; and returned immense thanks to Almighty God, who had been graciously pleased to inspire His Majesty's excellent mind, always inclined to that which was good, with fo much grace from Heaven 26. Henry was now the greatest favourite

26 Collier, Records, vol. ii. No. iv.

Cent. XVI. of the court of Rome; and if he had died at this time, would probably have been canonized.

Luther replies.

Few authors have had the pleasure of receiving fuch extravagant praifes for their works, as Henry received for this performance. But neither the luftre of his crown, nor the acclamations of his admirers, intimidated his antagonist. Luther, irritated at some contemptuous expresfions that the King had used, published an answer to his book; in which he treated him with unbecoming afperity, or rather fcurrility, of which he afterwards repented. Of this it will be fufficient to give one example. " If he had erred " like other men, he might have been forgiven; but when he knowingly and wittingly invents lies against the majesty of my King in hea-" ven, I have a right to bespatter his English " Majesty with mire, and trample the crown " of this blasphemer against Christ under my " feet 27." When Luther's passion subsided, he became fenfible of the error he had committed, and wrote a long letter of apology, dated September 1st, A. D. 1525.; in which he most earneftly implored forgiveness for the intemperate language of his book, to which, he fays, he had been excited by His Majesty's enemies, and not by his own inclination 28. But the King was not to be appealed. To expose Luther he published his letter, and an answer to it, " To shew " the world that he was not fo weak as to be enfnared by the flattery of a little foolish friar.

²⁷ Collier, Records, vol. ii. No. iii.

²⁸ Ibid. No. 5.

" nor fo fickle as to retract what he had writ- Cent. XVI. " ten, and what he knew to be right." 29

This controverfy between the King and Luther, Luther's and the title of defender of the faith, which he books prohad received from the Pope, of which he was exceedingly vain, inflamed his zeal for the church of Rome, and his hatred of the reformers in Germany, and of those who inclined to their opinions in England. Luther had also irritated his great favourite, Cardinal Wolfey, by calling him, in his apologetical letter to the King, "that plague of your kingdom, that monster, " hated by God and man, the Cardinal of York." Luther's person being out of the reach both of the King and Cardinal, who were equally incenfed against him, they spent their resentment upon his works, and on those who read them. The Cardinal, by virtue of his legantine commission, fent a mandate to all the bishops, abbots, and priors, in England, enjoining them to cause an order to be read in all the churches under their jurisdiction in the time of divine fervice, commanding all perfons, both of the clergy and laity, who had any books written by that pestilent heretic, Martin Luther, to deliver them to their ordinary within fifteen days, under the pain of being reputed and punished as heretics. With this mandate he fent a paper to be affixed to the door of every church, containing forty-two propositions, extracted from the works of Luther, which had been condemned by the

Cent.XVI. Pope as damnable herefies 30. But all these precautions did not prevent the importation of Luther's works, or their being translated into English, but rather increased the curiofity of the people to be acquainted with them.

Convocations.

A mifunderstanding had prevailed for some time between Cardinal Wolfey and Warham Archbishop of Canterbury. The Cardinal, by his legantine power, his place of chancellor, his immense revenues, and his high favour with the King, quite eclipfed the Archbishop, by drawing almost all causes into his courts, and disposing of almost all preferments, both in church and state. But greatashis power was, he fometimes stretched it too far. Archbishop Warham had summoned a convocation of the prelates and clergy of his province to meet at St. Paul's, April 20th, A.D. 1523., and the Cardinal had summoned a convocation of his province of York to meet at Westminster, at the same time. But as soon as the convocation of Canterbury met, and were about to proceed to bufinefs, the Cardinal fummoned them to attend him April 22d, in a legantine council at Westminster. This extraordinary step gave great offence to the prelates and clergy of the province of Canterbury. They obeyed the fummons; but when they came to treat of business, the proctors for the clergy observed, that their commissions gave them no authority to treat or vote but in convocation. This objection proved unanswerable, and the Cardinal, to his great mortification, was obliged to difmifs

³⁰ Strype, p. 37-40. Records, No. ix.

his legantine council. The convocation of Can- Cent. XVI. terbury returned to St. Paul's, and granted the King one half of all their benefices for one year, to be paid in five years. Thereafons they affigned for granting this extraordinary fubfidy were thefe: "That their most pious King had prevented a " fchism in the papacy; that by a great army, " and a most expensive war, he had preserved Italy " and Rome from being conquered by the French; " and that he had lately defeated and confounded " all the Lutheran heretics, raging like madmen " against the church and facraments, by his most " learned book, which it is impossible to praise "fufficiently 3". The convocation of the province of York fat at the same time at Westminfter, and granted the King the fame fubfidy. 32 Though Cardinal Wolfey had been constrained National

to difmifs his legantine or national council, on account of the irregular manner in which it had been called, he was determined to hold fuch a council, and to shine at the head of all the clergy of England. He therefore fummoned all the prelates, both of the regulars and feculars, and the representatives of the inferior clergy, to appear before him June 2d at Westminster. The pretence for calling this council was to reform the manners of the clergy, which the Cardinal faid had been recommended to him by the Pope; and in doing it he declared he was determined to employ all the power and wifdom that God had given him 33. What was done in this

council for the reformation of the clergy we are not informed; but there is fufficient evidence,

Cent. XVI. that no remarkable reformation took place at this time, and that the Cardinal, who appeared fo zealous for reforming others, had not the wisdom to reform himself. The truth is, that a vicious corrupt clergy, though they might talk and flourish about reformation and purity of manners in their fynods and councils, are not likely to be either very zealous or very fuccessful in promoting the real reformation of themselves or others.

Perfecutions.

There was one vice, indeed, which the clergy most zealously endeavoured to extirpate. This was what they called the damnable vice of herefy; which confifted in reading the New Testament in English, the works of Wickliff and Luther, and of others of that learning, in denying the infallibility of the Pope, transubstantiation, purgatory, praying to faints, worshipping images, &c. &c. Notwithstanding the cruel punishments that had been inflicted on those who entertained these opinions, their number was still considerable; particularly in London, and in Colchefter, and other parts of Effex. They called themselves the Brethren in Christ, and met together with great fecrecy in one another's houses, to read the New Testament and other books, and to converse on religious subjects. Many of them were apprehended and brought before Cuthbert Tunftal Bishop of London, and Doctor Wharton his chancellor. But Bishop Tunstal being a prelate of uncommon learning and eloquence, and of great humanity, he generally prevailed upon them to renounce, or rather to dissemble, their opinions, by which they escaped a painful death, but incurred the painful reproaches of their own minds.

minds 34. This perfecution was conducted with Cent. XVI. much greater feverity in the diocefes of Lincoln and Coventry. 35

Cardinal Wolfey was now, A. D. 1527., in the Wolfey's zenith of his power and greatness. The Pope greatness. being detained in prison by the Emperor, constituted Wolfey his vicar-general; invefting him with all the power of the papacy. Having thus obtained the power, though not the name, of pope, he ruled the church with the most despotic fway, and encroached on the most undisputed rights of the other bishops, as well as of the laity. Among other encroachments, he established a court in his own house, called York-house, for all testamentary matters, which almost annihilated both the bufiness and emoluments of the prerogative court of the Archbishop of Canterbury. Against this innovation the Archbishop remonstrated again and again, in very strong but decent and respectful terms. But to these remonstrances the haughty vicar-general paid no regard, till he received a message from the King, of whom alone he flood in some awe. 36

Such were the principal transactions, and such Great the state of the church of England, in the first nineteen years of the reign of Henry VIII. In that period the King was the most zealous champion of the court and church of Rome, and fought the battles of four fuccessive popes by his fword, his purfe, and his pen. In confequence of this, he was the greatest favourite of the court of Rome, loaded with the most extravagant praises, adorned with the title of defender of the faith.

³⁴ Strype, b. i. ch. 7, 8. 35 Fox, p. 896., &c. 36 Strype, b. i. ch. 6. and

Cent. XVI. and honoured with the precious presents of confecrated fwords, capes, and rofes. But the laft nineteen years of this reign present us with a very different flate of things. In that period the King broke off all subjection to, and connection with, the Pope, and court of Rome; became their most violent enemy, and laboured to induce other princes to shake off their yoke. He assumed the title of Supreme Head of the Church of England; was acknowledged fuch by his parliament, by the clergy, by almost all his subjects, and persecuted those to death who refused to acknowledge his fupremacy and renounce the Pope. By this conduct he cancelled all his former merits with the Pope, the cardinals, and all the zealous fons of the church of Rome, who loaded him with curses instead of praises, and represented him as worse than Judas, Caiphas, or Pilate, and the greatest enemy to God and holy church that had ever appeared. Atlast His Holiness thundered out against him the dreadful fentence of excommunication; gave him to the devil, absolved his subjects from their oaths of allegiance, and commanded them to depose him. He enjoined all Christian princes to declare war against him, and to seize all his dominions and every thing that belonged to him, to which he gave them a right 37. These great and furprifing changes were not brought about at once, but by various steps, which we shall now endeavour to trace.

Inflability of the church.

Though the authority of the Pope, and the tenets and ceremonies of the church of Rome, seemed to

³⁷ Strype, b. i. ch. 43. Wilkin. Concil. tom. iii. p. 792.

be firmly established in England in the first part Cent. XVI. of this reign, the foundations on which they rested were in fome degree undermined, and the fabric was not fo firm as it appeared. revival of learning, and the invention of the art of printing, made books more attainable, and fome degree of knowledge more general, than they had been in former times. This also gave an opportunity to persons of different opinions to communicate their fentiments to the public. A great number of fmall books against the authority of the pope, transubstantiation, purgatory, images, pardons, pilgrimages, &c. were published in England, and many of Luther's works were imported and translated. All these were circulated with great fecrecy, and perufed with great avidity by the people; which rendered great multitudes of them fecretly difaffected to the church. The clergy were very fenfible of their danger from this quarter, and exerted all their power to prevent the circulation of these books, especially of the New Testament in English, which they represented as perfect poison to the souls of Christians. But all their efforts were ineffectual. The nobility and principal gentlemen hated the clergy, on account of their exorbitant power and riches, their pomp and pride, their rapacity, luxury, and other vices, and the laity in general wished to see them humbled. In a word, the zealous attachment and great power of the King feem to have been the chief support of the papal power and popish church in England at this time; and when these supports were withdrawn, the ponderous

Cent. XVI. derous fabric could no longer stand. How these supports came to be withdrawn is now to be narrated.

Henry's doubts about his marriage.

Henry VIII. lived in great conjugal harmony with his Queen Katherine of Spain, his brother's widow, about eighteen years. When he first began to entertain doubts of the legality of his marriage cannot be afcertained: but it was not till A. D. 1527. that he began to disclose these doubts to his confessor Longland, Bishop of Lincoln, to his favourite Cardinal Wolfey, and to fome others. Having studied this question with great attention, and confulted many of the most learned men in his dominions, he came to be fully convinced that his marriage was inceftuous, and contrary to the laws of God and nature; and that the Pope could not difpense with these laws. This conviction, and perhaps some other confiderations, made him ardently defirous of obtaining a divorce, that he might be at liberty to contract a more unexceptionable marriage; and he refolved to apply to the Pope for that purpose.

History of the divorce already related.

From the time that Henry applied to the court of Rome (A. D. 1526.) for a divorce, that affair influenced all his councils and negotiations, and directed all his civil and political transactions for feveral years. It was impossible, therefore, to give a clear, diffinct, intelligible account of these transactions, without relating his negotiations at the court of Rome for obtaining that divorce, the delays, artifices, and double-dealing of that court, which at length provoked him to withdraw his obedience to the Pope, and affume the fupre-

macy

macy in his own dominions, which made way for Cent. XVI. the many important changes that followed in the church and flate of England. For these reasons, the history of the King's divorce from Queen Katherine, and of its immediate confequences, hath been already given in the fecond fection of the first chapter of this book, to which the reader is referred. We shall now proceed to relate fuch transactions as were purely ecclesiastical, and that feem to merit a place in history.

While Henry was negotiating his divorce at Perfecuthe court of Rome, he encouraged his prelates tions. and clergy to perfecute all heretics without mercy; and iffued a proclamation, commanding his chancellor, the judges of both benches, the justices of the peace, and all other civil officers and magistrates, to affift the bishops in extirpating all herefies and heretics 38. Thus infligated and supported, some of the English prelates were exceedingly zealous and active in the cruel bufiness of persecution. Thomas Bilney and Thomas Arthur of Cambridge were men of learning; and having imbibed the principles of Luther and the other reformers of Germany, they propagated these principles in the university and other places, with ability and fuccefs, by their writings, their preaching, and their conversation. They were both apprehended and imprisoned A. D. 1527.; and after fuffering a long imprisonment and many hardships, they were prevailed upon by the importunity of their friends, and the dread of a painful death, to abjure their opinions. But

Cent. XVI. Bilney was foon after feized with the most excruciating remorfe for his hypocrify, and could enjoy no peace of mind till he returned to the profession of his real principles. He was again imprisoned, and foon after burnt at Norwich as a relapfed heretic, and endured the flames with great composure and fortitude 30. About the same time (1530.) Thomas Hilton, a priest, after a long and fevere imprisonment, was burnt at Maidstone 40. Doctor John Stokesley, Bishop of London, was a more cruel perfecutor than any of the other English prelates of this time. By him Richard Bayfield, a prieft and monk of St. Edmonfbury, was tried and convicted of herefy, for importing, reading, and circulating, a great number of books written by Luther, Occolumpadius, Zuinglius, and others of that damnable fect. When the fentence was ready to be passed, the Bishop sent a letter to the mayor and sheriffs of London, requiring them in the bowels of Jesus Christ, to be present at passing the sentence, and to take the prisoner into their custody, and burn him to ashes41. Soon after this, James Bainham, agentleman of the Middle Temple, eminent for piety, virtue, and learning, was apprehended by an order of the chancellor Sir Thomas More, and conducted to his house at Chelsea. where he treated him for fome time with great kindness, and endeavoured to perfuade him to renounce his opinions. But finding all his efforts ineffectual, he commanded him to be tied to a tree in his garden, called the Tree of Truth, and whip-

³⁹ Fox, p.910-924. 4º Ibid. p. 910. 41 Ibid. p. 933. ped

ped him with his own hand. He then commit- Cent.XVI. ted him to the Tower, and put him to the rack, to extort from him the names of his friends in the Temple, who entertained the fame opinions. All his goods were confiscated, and his wife was committed to prison, because she would not discover where her hufband's books were concealed. Bainham bore all these sufferings with fortitude. without betraying his friends, or abandoning his principles; and the chancellor, despairing of making any impression upon him, sent him to Bishop Stokesley to be tried for herefy. He was accordingly tried before the Bishop December 25th, A. D. 1531., in Sir Thomas More's house at Chelfea, and returned fuch pointed answers, mostly in scripture language, to a great number of interrogatories, as discover him to have been a man of learning, good fense, and great integrity. He was found guilty of herefy; and the bishop and chancellor having affailed him with earnest intreaties and persuasions, to save himfelf from an exquisitely painful death, before the irrevocable fentence was pronounced, his courage failed him, and, with great anguish and agitation of mind, he subscribed his abjuration. But he foon and bitterly repented of what he had done, and wrote a letter to the bishop, expressing his forrow for his abjuration, on which he was apprehended and condemned as a relapfed heretic, and burnt in Smithfield.42 Several other persons, in, different parts of England at this time, shared

Cent. XVI. the fame fate, and were committed to the flames for herefy.

> Cardinal Wolfey felected from both univerfities feveral persons who were most eminent for genius and learning, to adorn the new and magnificent college he founded at Oxford; and among others, he made choice of John Frith of Cambridge. But it was foon discovered that Frith and feveral others of this felect fociety were infected with herefy, and they were caft into prison and very harshly treated. The Cardinal, who, to his honour, was averfe to perfecution, being informed of this, commanded them to be fet at liberty, thinking they had fuffered fufficiently for their imprudence in discovering their opinions. Soon after Frith recovered his liberty, he went to the continent, where he remained about two years, and then returned to England. His return was not long a fecret, and fo much diligence was used by Sir Thomas More and Bishop Stokesley in searching for him, that he was at last discovered and apprehended, and committed to the Tower. When he was in the Tower he was engaged in a controverfy with Sir Thomas More on transubstantiation, contending that the belief of that doctrine was not necessary to salvation, which Sir Thomas afferted. He had also a dispute with the Chancellor and his fon-in-law Mr. Raftall, and Fisher Bishop of Rochefter, on purgatory. He was drawn into both these controversies much against his will, and managed them with great modesty, as well as learning. But his antagonists had a

more

more effectual way of filencing him than by their Cent.XVI. writings. They brought him to trial for herefy, and pronounced him guilty, because he denied that the belief of transubstantiation and purgatory was necessary to falvation. For that crime, this amiable, virtuous, and learned man, (for fuch he appears to have been,) was burnt in Smithfield July 4th, A.D. 1533.; and in his company one Andrew Hewel, a young man who had been inftructed by him, and feemed ambitious to share his fufferings. 43 Though Mr. Frith behaved with the most undaunted firmness after he was apprehended, he had neglected no means of escaping from his pursuers, and had suffered great hardships for feveral months in wandering about under different difguifes, in hopes of getting beyond feas. But the ports were fo ftrictly guarded, that he could not efcape.

So ardent was the zeal of some of the English Tracee's prelates at this time against what they call herefy, that they not only wreaked their vengeance on the living, but on the ashes of dead heretics, by committing them to the flames. William Tracee, a gentleman in Gloucestershire, in his last will, declared, that he did not think it necessary to pray to faints, or to celebrate masses for the fouls of the dead, and therefore he left no money for that purpose. When this testament was produced in court to be proved, it was challenged as heretical, and carried to Archbishop Warham. Tracee was tried and found guilty of herefy A.D. 1532., and a fentence was pronounced, that his body

Cent. XVI. should be taken out of the grave and burnt. The execution of this fentence was committed to Doctor Parker, Chancellor of Worcester, by whom it was executed. Though Henry was fufficiently fierce against herefy and heretics, he was shocked at this transaction when it came to his knowledge. Doctor Parker was questioned for burning Tracee's body without a writ de heretico comburendo, (which he did not think neceffary in burning a dead heretic), and compounded for his delinquency by paying 300l. to the King.44

Many abjured.

Befides those above-mentioned, a great multitude of men and women in different parts of England were cruelly perfecuted at this time for denying transubstantiation, purgatory, the worship of images, praying to faints, and other peculiar tenets and ceremonies of the church of Rome. But the far greatest part of these sufferers, after enduring imprisonment and other hardships. were prevailed upon, by the importunity of their friends and the fear of death, outwardly to renounce opinions which they inwardly believed, and to become hypocrites rather than martyrs. Enough hath been faid on this unpleasant subject at prefent, to flew the cruel intolerant foirit of the King and clergy of England, immediately before their feparation from the church of Rome; and to preserve the memory of those good, pious, and brave men, who preferred death to diffimulation, and refigned their lives rather than their principles, which they thereby more

effectually recommended, than they could have Cent.XVI. done by any other means.

When the patience of Henry VIII. was worn Henry reout by the dilatory delufive conduct of the court follows to break with of Rome, and he almost despaired of obtaining the Pope. what he thought justice from that court, in the affair of his divorce, the ardour of his attachment to Rome began to abate: he could then bear to hear that the power of the Pope was not unlimited; that he could not dispense with the laws of God; and even that the authority which the bishops of Rome had so long exercised over the univerfal church, was an usurped authority, from which he at length determined to emancipate himself and his subjects. This he knew would fave them no little labour and a great deal of money, and would bring a great accession bothof power and revenue to the crown. He was aware that he would meet with great opposition in the execution of this defign, and that the court of Rome would move heaven and earth to raife him up enemies, both at home and abroad. He refolved therefore to proceed with caution, and to carry the parliament, the convocation, and his other fubjects, along with him in every ftep.

So early as A.D. 1529. Henry threw out a Parliathreatening, that if the Pope did not do him just ment. tice without delay, he would withdraw himfelf and his subjects from all obedience to him, and connection with him. This threatening was not, perhaps, fincere; it is certain it was not believed. The Pope and cardinals could not imagine that the great champion of the church,

Cent. XVI. who had been fo proud of the honours he had received for fighting their battles with his fword, his purfe, and his pen, would ever forfake them: it had, therefore no effect; and Henry, meeting with fresh delays and disappointments, resolved to execute, or at least to shew the Pope that he could execute, what he had threatened. The parliament that met for the first time Nov. 5th, A.D. 1529., proved very complying with the King's views, and was therefore continued about fix years by various prorogations; and in its feveral fessions made great changes in the state of the church of England. In the very first feffion, the house of commons discovered not a little diffatisfaction with the conduct of the clergy, particularly, with the exorbitant exactions of the spiritual court in the probates of wills, and of the parish priefts in mortuaries; and laws were made for regulating and reftraining these exactions45. When these bills were passing the house of commons, fome of the members spoke with great warmth against the extortions of the spiritual courts, and others painted the cruelty of incumbents in demanding mortuaries in very ftrong colours46. In a word, the clergy of England, immediately before the Reformation, and at the opening of this parliament, were in very difagreeable circumstances; they were not only hated by all who fecretly wished for a reformation. for the cruelty with which they perfecuted those whom they denominated heretics; but they were envied and difliked on feveral accounts, by

⁴⁵ Statutes, 21 Hen. VIII. Cap. 5. 6.

⁴⁶ Wilkins, tom.iii. p. 739.

the generality of the laity of all ranks; and they Cent.XVI. were also in a præmunire, and at the King's mercy, which made them more tractable, and more feeble in their opposition to the great changes that soon after followed, than they would have been in better circumstances.

In the next fession of this parliament, which commenced July 30th, A.D. 1530., a bolder step was taken. The house of lords wrote a very fpirited letter to the Pope, accusing him in very plain terms of ingratitude and injustice in delaying and declining to grant their fovereign the divorce which he folicited, which had been pronounced just and necessary by the most famous univerfities and most learned men in Europe. In conclusion they declared, that if His Holiness refused or delayed to grant their just request, they would feek and find relief some other way47. This famous letter was subscribed by twenty-eight spiritual and forty-two temporal lords. It was evidently intended to alarm the Pope, by shewing him, that if the King was provoked by further delays to withdraw his obedience to the fee of Rome, he would not be deferted by his fubjects, nor even by his clergy. But it did not produce the defired effect. His Holiness returned a smooth and artful answer, (September 27th, A.D. 1530.,) in which he beflowed the highest commendations upon the King, expressed his own gratitude for his many great fervices, and his earnest defire to oblige him as far as he could with juffice, in the ftrongest terms. But that when the Queen sufCent. XVI. pected the two cardinals appointed to try the cause in England of partiality, and appealed to the apostolical tribunal, he could not resuse to admit her appeal without injustice. That all the subsequent delays had been owing to the King himself, who resused to send a proctor to Rome

to plead his cause. He concluded with saying, "As for what you mention in the end of your "letter, that unless we grant your request herein "you shall impring that the care of your solver.

"you shall imagine that the care of yourselves is remitted into your own hands, and that you

" are left at liberty to feek remedy herein elfe" where: this is a resolution neither worthy of

" your prudence, nor becoming your Christi" anity; and we therefore, of our fatherly love, ex-

"hortyoutoabstain from any such rashattempt."4

The King fupreme head of the church.

The King now almost despaired of obtaining a divorce by a fentence of the Pope, and therefore he brought that affair before his parliament in its next fession, March 30th, A.D. 1531., as hath been already related. He laid the fame business also at the same time before the convocation, and produced the opinions of fo many universities and learned men against the legality of his marriage, as convinced a great majority of both the upper and lower house, that the marriage was contrary to the laws of God and nature, and that the Pope could not difpense with these laws. The King being now confident of the concurrence both of the parliament and convocation in any steps he should find it necesfary to take against the Pope, he boldly assumed

the title of fupreme head of the church of England. Cent. XVI. This title appeared for the first time in the petition of the convocation of the province of Canterbury to the King, for relief from the penalties of their præmunire, by a pardon. It did not pass in the convocation without opposition; but being affured by Thomas Cromwell, and fome others of the privy council, that their petitions would be rejected if they gave not the King that title, the oppofers filently acquiefced. Both the clergy and the laity in the north were more bigotted than those in the fouth; and the giving the King this title met with more opposition in the convocation of York than of Canterbury; but as they found that they could not obtain their pardon on any other terms, they at length fubmitted 49. Only Culbert Tunftal, Bishop of Durham, protested against that title. 50

This was not defigned to be an infignificant Annats empty title, but was intended to convey to the given to King, in his own dominions, all the powers and revenues which the Popes had long poffeffed in England. To convince the court of Rome that this was his intention, and that he could accomplish it, the next session of parliament, A. D. 1532., transferred one confiderable branch of revenue, the annats or first fruits from the Pope to the King st. This was a fevere blow, as thefe annats amounted to no fmall fum, and as it was a prelude to fimilar transfers of other branches of the papal revenues. This proceeding was very

the King.

51 Wilkin, Concil. tom.iii. p. 117.

⁵⁰ Wilkin. Concil. tom.iii. p. 745. 49 Burnet, p. 112.

Cent. XVI. disagreeable to many of the English clergy as they faw its tendency to a breach with Rome, and to fubject them in all things to their own fovereign, and the laws of their country, in common with the laity. Archbishop Warham, finding that the torrent began to run ftrong against the Pope and church, particularly in the house of commons, protested in the hands of a notary public before three witnesses February 24th, 1532., in his palace of Lambeth, against all the laws that had been made, or that should thereafter be made, by the present parliament, in derogation of the authority of the Pope, or the rights and immunities of the church 52. The defign of this private protest against those laws to which he had given his confent in public, is not very obvious.

The commons complain of the clergy.

The house of commons in this session presented a petition to the King against the clergy, complaining that they haraffed the laity by vexatious profecutions in their spiritual courts; and that they made and executed laws and canons without the royal affent; and that some of these canons were contrary to the laws of the land. The King transmitted this complaint of the commons to the convocation that was then fitting, and commanded them to return an answer. In their anfwer (which is written with uncommon art, they affirm, that they exercised their spiritual jurisdiction with the greatest lenity, except " upon cer-"tain evil-disposed persons, infected and utterly " corrupt with the pestilent poison of herefy, and to have had peace with fuch, it had been against

" the gospel of our Saviour Christ, wherein he cent. XVI. " faith, non veni mittere pacem, sed gladium." In their answer to the second article of complaint. they affert roundly, "We repute and take our " authority of making laws to be grounded upon " the scripture of God, and determination of " holy church." They add, that as they derived their authority to make laws from God, "We " may not submit the execution of our charge " and duty, certainly prescribed by God, to Your "Highness's affent, although in very deed the " fame be most worthy." With respect to the inconfiftency which the commons pretended was between the laws of the land, and the canons of the church, they observed that as the canons were made by the authority, and were perfectly agreeable to the will of God, it would be proper for His Grace and the parliament to change their laws, and bring them to a perfect conformity to those of the church. This was a strain rather too bold for the times, as they foon after found. 53

The King was far from being pleafed with this Convocaanswer, and soon brought the clergy to lower tion, their tone. He fent them two propositions, to which he demanded their affent: " 1. That no conflitution or ordinance shall be hereafter by " the clergy, enacted, promulgated, or put in exe-" cution, unlefs the King's Highness do approve " the fame by his high authority and royal affent. "2. That whereas divers of the constitutions co provincial, which have been heretofore enacted, " be thought not only much prejudicial to the

Cent. XVI. "King's prerogative, but also much onerous to "His Highness's subjects, it be committed to the " examination and judgment of thirty-two per-" fons; whereof fixteen to be of the upper and " lower house of the temporality, and other fix-" teen of the clergy; all to be appointed by the " King's Highness: fo that, finally, which soever " of the faid constitutions shall be thought and " determined by the most part of the said thirty-"two persons worthy to be abrogate and annul-" led, the fame to be afterwards taken away, and " to be of no force or ftrength." Nothing could be more difagreeable to the generality of the clergy than these two propositions, which tended to deprive them of the independent power of making and executing laws, which they pretended they had received from God, and to subject the facred canons of the church to be examined and repealed by laymen. The convocation held feveral meetings on this fubject, and proposed various emendations: in particular, they proposed to submit all their canons to the examination of the King alone: "Having (fay they) especial trust " and confidence in your most high and excellent " wisdom, your princely goodness, and fervent " zeal to the promotion of God's honour and the " christian religion, and especially your incom-" parable learning, far exceeding, in our judg-"ment, the learning of all other kings and coprinces that we have read of." But all this flattery was ineffectual. No alteration of the propositions would be admitted; and they were at last (May 16th, A. D. 1532.) obliged to give their affent

affent to the propositions as they stood. But be- Cent. XVI. fore they did this, they gave in a paper to the King, in which they declared, that they gave their affent to these propositions only in consideration of his high wifdom, great learning, and infinite goodness to them and the church; and afferted in the strongest terms, their divine right to make and execute laws without the royal affent, "which " (add they) Your Highness yourself, in your own " book, most excellently written against Martin " Luther, doth not only acknowledge and con-" fefs, but also with most vehement and inex-" pugnable reasons and authorities doth defend, " which we reckon that of your honour you "cannot, nor of your goodness you will not, re-"voke." This was a fevere stroke, which was probably remembered to their difadvantage. 54

Archbishop Warham did not long survive this Death of mortifying transaction. He died in the month of Warham. August, A. D. 1532. He was a man of learning, and possessed uncommon prudence and command of temper, which he had frequent opportunities of exercifing. In the former part of his pontificate he was eclipfed and controlled by the overpowering influence of Cardinal Wolfey, who, by his favour with the King, and his legantine commiffion from the Pope, ingroffed almost all power, both in church and state; and in the last part of it, he was much disquieted by the misunderstanding between the King and the Pope, by the attacks of the laity upon the church and clergy, and by the increase of those opinions which he esteemed

Cent. XVI. heretical. His feverity in the profecution of heretics was the greatest blemish in his character; but it should be confidered, that in those times mercy to those who diffented from the church was confidered as one of the greatest crimes in a prelate, and perfecuting them to death as one of the greatest virtues; fo strangely were the minds of men perverted by bigotry and superstition.

Doctor Cranmer primate.

Henry having for fome time entertained a very high opinion of the learning, prudence, and integrity of Doctor Thomas Cranmer, refolved to raife him to the primacy, and with that view recalled him from his embaffy to the imperial court. Cranmer, who was neither covetous nor ambitious, was far from being delighted with the profpect of this great promotion; on the contrary, forefeeing the difficulties and dangers with which it would be attended, he declined it with much earnestness and fincerity. But the King was positive; and he complied, in hopes of promoting a reformation in the church, of which he was fenfible of the necessity. 55

confecrated.

A difficulty foon occurred. Doctor Cranmer had ftrong fcruples about taking the oath of canonical obedience to the Pope, both because he thought it inconfistent with the oath he wastotake to the King, and because he apprehended that it would reftrain him from promoting that reformation in the church which he intended; and for these scruples it is certain there was some ground. But as the King at this time entertained hopes of a reconciliation with the court of Rome, which he

still defired; and as the Pope had approved of Cent. XVI. the election of Doctor Cranmer, and had fent over all the bulls for his confecration; it was thought necessary not to omit the oath which these bulls required. This question was at length referred to certain canonifts and cafuifts, who proposed the following salvo, that the primate elect, before he took the oath to the Pope, should make a formal protestation: " That he did not "intend, by taking that oath, to restrain himself " from doing what he thought to be his duty to "God, to his King, and his country." This falvo, though liable to great objections, was adopted. He made the proposed protestation before he took the oath of canonical obedience, and was confecrated March 13th, A.D. 1533., by the Bishops of Lincoln, Exeter, and St. Asaph 56. As both the parliament and convocation were then fitting, the new primate was immediately engaged in very important transactions, which have been already related, viz. the diffolution of the King's marriage with the first Queen Katherine of Spain, and the confirmation of his marriage with his fecond Queen Anne Boleyn.57

Several efforts were made by Henry A. D. Breach 1533., aided by his ally the King of France, to between Rome and prevail upon the Pope to dissolve the marriage-England. between him and Queen Katharine, to prevent a total rupture between Rome and England, and to pave the way for a reconciliation. But all thefe efforts were unfuccessful, and a rash sentence pronounced by the Pope (under the influence, it is

Cent. XVI. faid, of passion) in a full consistory, March 23d, A.D. 1534., confirming the marriage between Henry and Katharine, and declaring it lawful, brought that tedious and perplexing affair to a crifis, and produced a total breach between the court and church of Rome and the court and church of England⁵⁸: one of the most important and propitious events in the hiftory of Great Britain.

Acts of parliament.

The breach being now made became daily wider and wider: mutual injuries were multiplied; and the English parliament made several acts, and the convocation feveral canons, which rendered a reconciliation almost impossible. The act that had been made in a former fession of this parliament against the payment of first-fruits to the Pope was confirmed, and many new clauses added concerning the election and confecration of prelates, without any application to Rome for bulls of any kind; and those who violated this law were declared to be in a præmunire. By another act, all appeals to the Pope and his courts at Rome were prohibited under the same penalty; and the power of determining causes in the last resort was in some cases conferred on the primate, and in others on the King 60. By another law, which is very long and particular, all payments to the Pope, for Peter-pence, dispensations, procurations, provisions, bulls, delegacies, rescripts, licences, faculties, grants, relaxations, rehabilitations, abolitions, &c. &c. are prohibited 61.

⁵⁸ Wilkin. Concil tom. iii. p. 769.

⁵⁸ Wilkin. Concl. 10.1.1. cap. 20.
59 Statutes, 25 Hen. VIII. cap. 20.
67 Ibid. cap. 21.

By these laws the Pope was deprived of all the Cent. XVI. power and all the revenues he had long poffeffed in England. This was a fevere blow, which, it is probable, His Holiness did not expect. These laws were first brought into the house of commons, and they treated the Pope with little refpect or ceremony, calling him and his predeceffors impoftors, who had long deceived the world by false pretences, and usurpers of powers and prerogatives to which they had no title. If any person in England had used this language only a few years before, he would have been committed to the flames. The fame parliament in the next fession, November A.D. 1534., granted to the King, as supreme head on earth of the church of England, and to his heirs and fucceffors, all the powers, prerogatives, and emoluments, they had taken from the Pope, which brought a great accession both of power and revenue to the crown, 62

Henry and his ministers were at no little pains Precauto reconcile the minds of his fubjects of all ranks tions. to this great change in the government of the church, and to eradicate their veneration for the Pope, and their respect for his authority, to which they had been fo long accustomed. With this view he procured and published the opinions of the universities of Oxford and Cambridge: "That "the Bishop of Rome had no more authority in " England, by the word of God, than any other " foreign bishop." All the English bishops subfcribed and fealed, and took a folemn oath to adhere to the same opinion. The name of the

62 Statutes, 26 Hen. VIII. cap. 1. and 3.

Cent. XVI. Pope was ftruck out of all the books that were used in the service of the church. A very strict injunction was iffued, commanding all prelates to preach every Sunday and holiday in fupport of the King's supremacy, and against the authority of the Bishop of Rome, and to command their clergy to do the fame. Instructions were fent to all the sheriffs to keep a watchful eye on the clergy in their feveral counties, and to fend up the names of fuch as did not preach against the Pope's authority, and in vindication of the King's fupremacy; or did it in a delufory fuperficial manner. Even schoolmasters were enjoined to give proper inftructions to their fcholars on these subjects. Several books were written and circulated with great industry, to convince the world that the dominion which the Bishop of Rome claimed and exercifed over the Christian church, as Christ's vicar upon earth, was an usurpation, and had no foundation in Scripture 63. Spies were fent into all parts of the country, and even into Scotland, to hear and report the observations that were made upon the late transactions 64. These prudent precautions were neither unnecessary, nor without effect: they were not unnecessary, because several of the clergy, particularly of the friars, travelled up and down the country preaching with vehemence in support of the papal pretentions, and inflaming the minds of the people against the King for assuming the supremacy; they were not without effect, because they put a stop to the inflammatory declamations of those dangerous incendiaries: and

⁶³ Wilkin. p. 771-776.

⁶⁴ Strype's Mem. ch. 21.

encouraged fuch of the clergy as wished for a Cent. XVI. reformation, and even some who had nothing at heart but their own promotion, to endeavour by their preaching and writings to convince the people, that the claim of the Bishop of Rome to the government of the whole church was not well founded; and that the King had an undoubted right to the supremacy in his own dominions, by which the peace of the kingdom was at this time preserved. 65

Still further to fecure the public tranquillity, the fentence of divorce that had been pronounced by the Archbishop of Canterbury between the King and his first Queen Katharine, and the fentence of the fame prelate confirming the King's marriage with his fecond Queen Anne Boleyn, were confirmed by parliament; and by the same act the fuccession to the crown was settled on the King's iffue male by Queen Anne, or any future queen: and failing them, on the Princess Elizabeth and her issue, by which the Princess Mary was excluded as illegitimate. This act was to be published in every county of the kingdom before the 1st of May, A. D. 1534.; and if any person, after that day, did any thing, by act or writing, to disparage the King's present marriage, or to defeat the fuccession as then settled, he was to be punished as a traitor; and all subjects above the age of twenty-one were appointed to take a folemn oath, acknowledging the legality of the King's marriage with Queen Anne, and engaging to support the succession 66. Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, and Sir Thomas More, (as hath

⁶⁵ Strype, ch. 20, 21, 22, 23, 24. 66 Statutes, 25 Hen. cap. 22. been

Cent. XVI. been before narrated,) fell facrifices with this law; and the execution of two perfons fo eminent for their rank, and fo renowned for their piety, virtue, and learning, ftruck terror into all others. The oath was taken not only by the laity of all ranks, but by all the clergy both regular and fecular, though it contained a claufe acknowledging the King's fupremacy; and declaring that the Bishop of Rome had no more authority in England than any other foreign bishop 67. The Pope therefore appeared now to have loft all his influence, and all his partifans in England. But this was a fallacious appearance. Great multitudes took this oath only to fave their lives, and with a refolution to break it as foon as they could do it with fafety.

Proclamation.

Though the church of England was now feparated from the church of Rome, it still retained all the doctrines and ceremonies, together with the odious perfecuting spirit, of that church. The King, in the beginning of 1535., issued a proclamation, threatening death without mercy to all who denied or disputed the doctrine of transubstantiation, or any of the other doctrines of the holy church, or who contemned or violated any of the laudable rights and ceremonies heretofore used; as holy bread, holy water, procession, kneeling, and creeping to the cross on Good Friday, &c. &c. By this proclamation fuch of the clergy as had married were deprived of their orders and benefices, and declared to be laymen, and fuch as prefumed to marry afterwards

⁶⁷ Wilkin. Concil. tom. iii. p. 774. 780, 781, 782.

were not only to be deprived, but also impri- Cent.XVI. foned and punished as the King pleased 68. Several Anabaptifts, who had fled from perfecution in Germany, and had taken shelter in England about this time, were apprehended and put to death, not only for their doctrine concerning baptism but chiefly for denying transubstantiation 69. In a word, no idea was yet entertained of the right of private judgment in matters of religion. Henry was the pope of England; herefy was ftill accounted the greatest of all crimes, and fubjected those who were convicted of it to the most cruel of all punishments.

The King being now fully invested with the Cromwell title of fupreme head of the church of England, vicegerent. and with all the powers annexed to that title, refolved to exercife these powers in their full extent. To accomplish this, he appointed Thomas Cromwell, then fecretary of state, his vicar-general and vicegerent, with authority to vifit all ecclefiaftical persons and communities in his dominions, to rectify and correct all abuses, and, in a word, to do every thing that he himself could do as supreme head of the church of England. He granted him also a power to give commisfions under the great feal to fuch perfons as he should think proper, to affift him in performing the duties of that high and arduous office. Cromwell accordingly gave commissions to Doctors Leighton, Lee, London, and many other perfons, containing very ample powers to vifit all churches, metrapolitical, cathedral, and col-

⁶³ Wilkin. Concil. tom. iii. 778. 69 Ibid. p. 779.

Cent.XVI. legiate; all monasteries, and priories, both of men and women; to enquire into the conduct of archbishops, bishops, and dignitaries; of abbots and priors, abbeffes, prioreffes, monks, and nuns, both as to spirituals and temporals: and to censure and punish such as were found delinquents, according to their demerits. 70

Vifitation of monafteries.

Though these commissioners were authorised to vifit the fecular clergy, even of the highest dignity, this, it is probable, was not defigned to be executed, but only to exhibit an appearance of impartiality, and to conceal from the monaftics the dreadful blow that was intended to be given them. It is certain the instructions that were given to these visitors relate only to convents, and bore the following title: " Articles " to be inquired into in this royal vifitation of "monastics, especially of those who are exempt " from the jurisdiction of their diocesan, who are " now at last subjected to the jurisdiction of His "Majesty." These instructions are very particular, and confift of no fewer than eighty-fix articles: many of them relate to the state and management of their revenues, their relics, jewels, plate, furniture, corn, cattle, and goods of every kind. Several of them feem to intimate a fufpicion, that the monks and nuns did not observe their vows of chaftity very firietly, and fuggest the inquiries to be made on that subject. They were to inquire, whether the monks of any monaftery were defamed for incontinency; whether women were observed to resort to it by backways; and whether boys and young men frequently flept with the abbot, or the monks. With refpect to nunneries, they were directed to examine very carefully the height of the outward wall, the ftrength of the doors and windows, and of their bars and bolts; to fearch very diligently for dark and fecret passages; to inquire whether the gates and doors were kept shut, and whether the keys were ever committed to the keeping of any of the young nuns, &c. &c. ⁷⁵

Henry had various reasons to dislike the monks: Henry dis-

public and private, against his divorce: he sufpected them of conveying intelligence to his
enemies abroad, and of somenting disaffection
among his subjects at home. Though they had
lately taken a solemn oath to support his supremacy, he knew they were still devoted to the
Pope, his greatest enemy. Their spoils also prefented a tempting bait to a prince who was at
once profuse and covetous. It was evidently
hazardous to attempt to overturn an establishment so ancient, so opulent, and which had long
been esteemed facred. But several circumstances
now concurred to render such an attempt less
dangerous than formerly. The monks were
hated by the secular clergy, had lost the favour

he was provoked by their declamations, both likes the monks.

of the laity of all ranks by their vices, and could expect no protection from their great patron at Rome. Henry was encouraged to attack them by Cranmer and Cromwell, who thought their

Cent. XVI. and the present visitation was intended to pave the way for their suppression, by detecting and exposing their fecret enormities and vices.

Reports of the vifitors.

The vifitors, having received their commissions and inftructions, were dispatched into different parts of the kingdom at the fame time, that the monks might have as little warning of their approach as possible. They executed their commissions with zeal and diligence, and made some curious discoveries almost in every house, not much to the honour of its inhabitants. In making these discoveries they were greatly indebted to the violent factions and animofities which reigned among the monks and nuns, who informed against one another, and against their superiors. Accounts of their proceedings were transmitted by the vifitors to the vicar-general, and contained fufficient materials to render the monastics completely infamous, and the objects of universal detestation, for their gross absurd superstition and idolatry, their infernal cruelty, their shameful impositions on the credulity of the people, their abandoned unnatural incontinency, their drunkenness, gluttony, and other vices. Some of the old abbots and friars did not attempt to conceal their amours, which they knew to be impossible. The holy father, the Prior of Maiden-Bradley, affured the vifitors that he had only married fix of his fons and one of his daughters out of the goods of his priory as yet; but that feveral more of his children were now grown up, and would foon be marriageable. He produced a dispensation from the Pope permitting him to keep a mistress; and

and he acquainted them that he took none but cent. XVI. young maidens to be his mistresses, the handsomest ' that he could procure; and when he was disposed to change, he got them good husbands 72. But the page of history must not be stained with the abominations contained in the reports of these visitors. It may be fufficient to lay before the reader, a fhort description of their contents in the preamble to the act of parliament which they produced: " Forasmuch as manifest sin, " vicious, carnal, and abominable living, is daily " used and committed in abbies, priories, and " other religious houses of monks, canons, and " nuns; and albeit, many continual vifitations " hath been heretofore had by the space of "two hundred years and more, for an honest " charitable reformation of fuch unthrifty, car-" nal, and abominable living, yet nevertheless, co little or none amendment is hitherto had. but their vicious living shamefully increaseth " and augmenteth," &c. 73 It is but just to notice, that though the corruption of the monaftics in England at this time was very general, it was not univerfal: fome in almost every monaftery were regular in their conduct, and at their own defire were fet at liberty. few convents were found to be well governed, and unexceptionable; and for the prefervation of these, the visitors pleaded with great earneftness 74. This affords a presumptive proof, that the complaints of the delinquent monks, of

⁷² Strype, ch. 34, 35.

⁷³ Statutes, 27 Hen. VIII. cap. 28.

Cent. XVI. the extreme feverity of the visitors, were not well founded.

Small monafteries diffolved.

Having received ample information of the flate of the convents, and the manners of their inhabitants, it was debated in council what was proper to be done; and on this subject several schemes were propofed 75. It was believed to be dangerous to attempt the diffolution of all the religious houses in the kingdom at once; it was therefore very prudently refolved to begin with the fmaller monasteries, which were faid to be the most corrupt, and were certainly the weakest. The reports of the vifitors were laid before parliament, which furnished the enemies of the monastics with materials for declaiming against them, and almost stopped the mouths of their friends. By the last act of the long parliament in April 1536., all the houses of monks, canons, and nuns, that had not above 2001. of yearly revenue, and did not contain above twelve members, were diffolved. and all their lands and goods granted to the King. By the same act, all the refignations that had been made of religious houses by their superiors to the King were confirmed 76. The number of religious houses dissolved by this act was three hundred and feventy-fix, and their former poffesfors were removed into the greater convents of the fame order. The annual revenues arifing from their lands was computed to be £32,000; and their jewels, plate, and furniture, with their corn, cattle, and other goods, were estimated

75 Strype, p. 271, &c.

⁷⁶ Statutes, 27 Hen. VIII. cap. 28.

at £100,000: but both these computations were Cent. XVI. much below their real value.

Several fevere proclamations had been iffued by Translathe King, at the requisition of the clergy, against tion of the all who read, or kept by them, Tindal's Translation of the New Testament into English. A copy of this book found in the possession of any person was fufficient to convict him of herefy, and fubject him to the flames. The bishops were at incredible pains to prevent the importation of those dangerous volumes, to feize them after their importation, and to punish the importers and purchafers. They pretended that Tindal's Translation was full of errors and herefies; and they promifed to prepare and publish a more faithful translation; but they were in no haste to perform their promife. In the mean-time, those of the people of all ranks who suspected that many errors prevailed in the church, and wished for a reformation, became more and more importunate and impatient to have the use of the Scriptures in their native language. At length Archbishop Cranmer, wishing to gratify this laudable defire of the people, obtained the King's permission to prepare a translation of the Bible, to be published by authority. To accomplish this work, Cranmer divided the New Testament into nine parts, chose nine of the best Greek scholars he could find, and committed the translating of one of these parts to each. When they were all translated and returned to him, he fent one of these parts to one of the most learned of his brethren the bishops, to be corrected, and returned with their observations.

Eight

Cent. XVI. Eight of the nine bishops complied with this requifition; but Stokesley, Bishop of London, returned his part (the Acts of the Apostles) with a furly meffage: That he disapproved the allowing the use of the Scriptures to the people, which would betray them into damnable errors, and diffurb the peace of the church. The primate expressing some surprise at this message, one of the company observed, that Doctor Stokesley would give himfelf no trouble about any teftament in which he had no legacy; and befides, (faid he,) the apostles were so poor that they are quite below the notice of My Lord of London. This translation was not published till about three years after the order for preparing it was granted. 77

Convocation.

In a convocation of the province of Canterbury at St. Paul's, June 21st, A. D. 1536., the Lord Cromwell took his feat above the Archbishop as the King's vicegerent. In the fourth fession, June 23d, Doctor Gwent, prolocutor of the lower house, brought up a complaint to the higher house, that many dangerous errors and damnable herefies were now publicly preached in all parts of England; and produced a schedule of no fewer than fixty-feven of those abuses, errors, and herefies, and required that they should be reformed. Many of these pretended errors and abuses are now the established doctrines and practices of the church of England; fuch as preaching against transubstantiation, purgatory, extreme unction, auricular confession, penances, pardons,

77 Burnet, p.195.

dulgences, praying to faints, worshipping images, Cent. XVI. and relics; pilgrimages, holy water, hallowed oil, bread, candles, ashes, and palms; and in a word, against all doctrines that have no foundation in Scripture, and all ceremonies that are merely of human invention. Against all these, the clergy of the lower house of convocation complained, that fome heretical preachers declaimed, and many of the people talked, with impunity 78. This is a fufficient proof, that the principles and spirit of the Reformation had at this time made no great progrefs among the clergy of the province of Canterbury. Though they had with extreme reluctance renounced the fupremacy of the Pope, they still retained their attachment to all the tenets and ceremonies of the church of Rome.

The clergy of the province of York were ftill York conmore averse to all reformation, than their bre-vocation. thren in the fouth. The vicegerent had fent ten interrogatories to them, to which he required their answers. We may guess at the questions by the answers. To the first they answered -That all who preached against purgatory, worshipping of faints, pilgrimages, images, &c. should be committed to the flames as heretics. To the fecond - That neither the King, nor any temporal man, could be supreme head of the church by the laws of God. To the third-That they were not fufficiently instructed in the fact to return any answer. To the fourth - That no clerk ought to be put to death without degradation. To the fifth - That no man ought to

cent. XVI. be drawn out of fanctuary, but in certain cases expressed in the laws of the church. To the fixth — That the clergy in the north had not granted the tenths and first-fruits to the King in convocation; and by the laws of the church they can make no fuch grant; and that they had not given their confent to the act of parliament. They think, that by the laws of God no temporal man can claim such tenths and first-fruits. To the feventh — That lands given to God, the church, or religious men, may not be taken away, and put to profane uses, by the laws of God. To the eighth — We think dispensations lawfully granted by the Pope to be good; and pardons have been allowed by general councils and the laws of the church. To the ninth - We think, that by the law of the church, general councils, interpretations of approved doctors, and consent of Christian people, the Pope of Rome hath been taken for the head of the church, and vicar of Christ; and so ought to be taken. This was a very extraordinary answer from men who had lately renounced the fupremacy of the Pope. and acknowledged the supremacy of the King by a folemn oath. They had probably obtained a dispensation from Rome. To the tenth they anfwered-We think that the examination and correction of deadly fin belongeth to the ministers of the church, by God's law 79. Befides thefe anfwers, they boldly demanded the restoration of the monasteries, and the repeal of several acts of parliament. In these answers and demands we

⁷⁹ Strype's Appendix, No. lxxiv.

discover the feeds of that formidable rebellion cent.XVI. called the pilgrimage of grace, that broke out in the north in October, A. D. 1536., about two months after this convocation. The demands of the infurgents were in the same spirit, and almost in the same words with the answers of the convocation.

England was at this time a scene of great anxiety and agitation, of violent animofities and disputes between the friends and enemies of reformation. The bishops were equally divided. Cranmer of Canterbury, Goodrich of Ely, Shaxton of Sarum, Latimer of Worcester, Fox of Hereford, Hilsley of Rochefter, and Barlow of Saint David's, favoured, and endeavoured to promote a reformation both in the doctrines and ceremonies of the church; which was opposed with equal zeal by Lee of York, Stokesley of London, Tunstall of Durham, Gardiner of Winchester, Sherborne of Chichefter, Nix of Norwich, and Kite of Carlifle 80. The dignitaries in the feveral fees generally cooperated with their bishops; the inferior clergy, and the laity of all ranks, were no less divided, and as warmly engaged in this controversy. Many books were published on both fides, and passionate altercations raged in cities, towns, and villages, between the two parties. The King, defirous to allay this ferment, which threatened the most dangerous commotions, gave a commission to the bishops and some other learned men to draw up certain articles of union, to be published by royal authority, as the creed and ritual of the

Cent. XVI. church of England, in which all the fubjects were tobe commanded to acquiesce. After many meetings and much altercation, the commissioners finished their work: each party relinquishing some of their peculiar opinions, in order to preferve others. It confifted of two parts: the first contained the doctrines necessary to be believed; and the fecond, the ceremonies proper to be retained to promote devotion. In the first part, the people were commanded to believe every thing contained in the Scriptures and three creeds; that called the Apostle's, the Nicene, and the Athanafian. The three facraments, of baptism, of penance, and of the altar, are explained, and declared to be necessary to falvation. In the explanation of baptifm, the necessity of baptifing infants is afferted, and rebaptism is declared to be a damnable herefy. In the explanation of penance, auricular confession to a priest is made necessary; and the people were to be taught to give no less faith and credence to the words " of absolution " pronounced by the ministers of the church, " than they would give unto the very voice and " words of God himfelf, if he should speak unto " us out of heaven." -This most impious and pernicious doctrine was too honourable and advantageous to the clergy to be foon relinquished. In the explanation of the facrament of the altar, transubstantiation is afferted in the strongest terms that could be devised. This first part concludes with an explanation of the doctrine of justification, nearly the fame with that which hath been adopted by all Protestant churches. the fecond part, concerning ceremonies, images

were to be continued in churches, and the peo- Cent.XVI. ple were to be permitted to present offerings to them, to kneel, and to burn incense before them; but they were to be taught that this was not done to the images themselves, but to the honour of God; " for else there might fortune of idolatry to enfue, which God forbid." This doth not feem to have been the most effectual way to prevent idolatry. Saints were to be honoured, but not with that confidence and honour that are only due unto God: that it was proper to pray to them to be our intercessors, and to pray for us to Almighty God. The people were to be instructed, "to pray for fouls departed, and to commit them in our prayers to God's " mercy, and also to cause others to pray for "them in masses and exequies, and to give " alms to others to pray for them; whereby they " may be relieved and holpen of fome part of " their pain." By this the emoluments of the clergy were fecured under the name of alms. The people were to be enjoined and exhorted to observe almost all the former ceremonies; but they were to be taught, "that none of thefe " ceremonies have power to remit fin, but only " to ftir and lift up our minds unto God, by "whom only our fins be forgiven ":" articles were published by the King, and all his fubjects were commanded to receive and obey them. The friends of reformation feem to have gained fome advantage on this occasion. The scriptures and the three ancient creeds were made

Cent. XVI. the standards of doctrine, without any mention of tradition. Four of the feven facraments were omitted; purgatory was left doubtful, pilgrimages were not enjoined, and feveral other things were explained and foftened. Both parties, however, were discontented. The papifts complained that too much of the former fystem was given up; and the reformers, that too much of it was retained. These articles were subscribed by all the members of both houses of convocation.82

Injunetions,

Thomas Lord Cromwell, the King's vicargeneral, published injunctions from time to time, directing the clergy what doctrines they were to preach, and instructing them, in an authoritative manner, how to perform the various duties of their facred office. This was humiliating to the clergy, but it was necessary. Many of the parish priests never preached, and others of them preached only on fuch fubjects as tended to inflame the bigotry and superstition of the people. The vicar-general, therefore, in his injunctions, commanded all rectors, vicars, and curates to preach one fermon in each quarter of the year; Wherein," fays he, "ye shall purely and fin-" cerely declare the very gospel of Christ, and " in the fame exhort your hearers to works of " charity, mercy, and faith, specially prescribed " and commanded in scripture, and not to re-" pose their trust and affiance in any other works " devised by men's fantasies, besides scripture; " as in wandering to pilgrimages, offering of money, candles, or tapers, to images or relics, or " kiffing or licking the fame. If ye have here-

82 Wilkin, p. 817.

tofore

" tofore declared to your parishioners any thing Cent.XVI. "to the extolling or fetting forth pilgrimages, " feigned relics, or images, or any fuch fu-" perstition, ye shall now openly before the same " recant and reprove the fame; shewing them, " as the truth is, that ye did the fame upon no " ground of scripture, but as one led and se-"duced by a common error and abuse crept " into the church, through the fufferance and " avarice of fuch as felt profit by the fame 33." These and several other injunctions in the same strain and spirit, that were published by the vicargeneral, A.D. 1536-7., were drawn up by Archbishop Cranmer: but they were very disagreeable to the great body of the clergy, who still retained a cordial affection to all the gainful tenets of the church of Rome. So much were many of the clergy diffatisfied with these injunctions, that they read them in fuch a manner that none could understand them, and told their people in private, to do as their fathers had done. and that the old way was the best.84

Henry VIII. became more and more tena-vifitation. cious of his new title of supreme head of the church of England, when he found that it brought him a very great accession both of power and revenue. At the same time he knew that the monastics of all the different orders in his dominions were secret enemies to his supremacy, and devoted to the Pope. He determined, therefore, first to disgrace them, by exposing their vices and impostures, and then to ruin them and enrich the crown with their spoils. In

Wilkin, p. 816.

84 Strype's Cranmer, p. 70.

F 2 order

Cent. XVI. order to this, he appointed a new visitation, A.D. 1537., of all the remaining religious houses, in the kingdom: and the commissioners were instructed to make strict inquiry into the vices, the superstitious practices, and the cheats of the religious of both fexes, by which they deceived the people and nourished superstition to enrich themselves. Many of the monks were so much alarmed at the report of this vifitation, that they furrendered their houses and possessions to the King, without waiting the arrival of the vifitors. These furrenders were made on various pretences: but the principal motives that influenced the furrenderers were to prevent the publication and punishment of their vices, crimes, and impostures, and to procure better treatment and more liberal pensions. The chief employment of the vifitors in this and the two following years, feems to have been fettling the furrenders of monasteries, and the pensions of the abbots, priors, and monks; making furveys of their estates; taking possession of their relics, jewels, and plate (which in some houses was of great value); felling their furniture; pulling down their churches, and fuch of their other buildings as were only fuited and ufeful to monastics; disposing of their bells, lead, and other materials. It is almost incredible how many magnificent churches, cloifters, dórmitories, libraries, and other buildings which had been erected at an immense expence of money and labour, were unroofed and ruined, in the short space of three or four years. To this dreadful havoc Henry and his courtiers were prompted partly by their avarice. avarice, and partly to prevent the re-establish- Cent. XVI. ment of the monastics.85

To finish this great affair, a parliament was Monascalled, which met at Westminster April 28th, teries sup-A. D. 1540. On the 13th of May a bill was brought into the house of peers for granting to the King, and his heirs and fucceffors, all the houses, lands, and goods of all the abbies, priories, nunneries, chantries, hospitals, and religious houses, that had already been surrendered or suppressed, or that should hereafter be furrendered or suppressed. The journals take no notice of any opposition to this bill in the house of peers: but it certainly met with opposition. There were no fewer than twenty abbots in that bouse, who could not all be filent on that occafion 85. Befides, we are informed that Cranmer Archbishop of Canterbury, Latimer Bishop of Worcester, and several other prelates that favoured the new learning, (as the reformation was then called,) pleaded earnestly for the prefervation of three or four houses in every county, to be converted into schools for the education of youth, and hospitals for the relief of the poor; and that by their opposition to his favourite bill, they incurred the King's displeasure, which he foon after made them feel 87. Great art was used to perfuade the temporal peers and the gentlemen of the house of commons to pass this bill, against which they had many objections. They were affured, "That if the monafteries were se suppressed, and their houses, lands, and goods,

⁸⁵ Burnet, vol. i. p. 235. &c.

⁸⁶ Journals, Dugdale, p. 501.

⁸⁷ Strype's Cranmer, p. 72.

Cent. XVI. " granted to their King, there should be created " forty earls, fixty barons, three thousand " knights, and forty thousand foldiers with " skilful captains, and competent maintenance " for them all; and that no more loans or fub-" fidies should ever be demanded 88." This bill accordingly passed both houses with much less opposition than might have been expected; and in confequence of it, all the possessions of six hundred and forty-five convents, ninety colleges, two thousand three hundred and feventyfour chantries and free chapels, and an hundred and ten hospitals, were annexed to the crown. The yearly rent of their lands was estimated at 160,000l.; which (if we may rely on the opinion of a right reverend and well-informed hiftorian) was not one-tenth of their real value 89. The jewels, plate, furniture, and other goods, which had belonged to all these houses, must have amounted to a prodigious fum, of which no computation can now be made. In many of the richer monasteries their vestments were of cloth of gold, filk, and velvet, richly embroidered; their crucifixes, images, candlefticks, and other utenfils, and ornaments of their churches, were of gold, filver-gilt, and filver 90. The gold taken from the shrine of Thomas a Becket at Canterbury, filled, it is faid, two chefts, which eight ftrong men could hardly carry. Much of the jewels and plate in fome monafteries was conveyed away before their diffolution, and fome of it was probably fecreted by those who had it in

⁸⁸ Coke's 4 Institute, f. 44. 8) Burnet, p. 269.

⁹⁰ See Strype's Cranmer, Append. No. xvi.

charge; but after all, immense quantities came Cent. XVI. into the treasury, where it did not long continue.



The abolition of all the monaftic orders in England, and the alienation of their property, was a very bold measure, and affords a striking proof of the great power and awful determined character of the King, and of the superior abilities, courage, and wifdom of his minister and vicegerent Cromwell. It contributed greatly to promote the permanent prosperity of the kingdom in many respects, as well as the reformation of religion, which could not have been accomplished while those nurseries of idleness, vice, and superstition remained.

Though Henry had now emancipated himfelf Lambert and his subjects from the dominion of the Pope, burnt. he still continued as much attached as ever to fome of the most absurd tenets of the church of Rome, particularly transubstantiation; and perfecuted those who prefumed to call that doctrine in question with the most unrelenting cruelty. A remarkable example of this occurred A.D. 1538. One John Nicolfon, who taught a school in London, and to conceal himself from his former perfecutors, had affumed the name of Lambert, being brought before Archbishop Cranmer, and accused of herefy, for denying the corporal presence of Christ in the eucharist, appealed to the King, as supreme head of the church of England. Henry, vain of his theological learning, and instigated by Gardiner Bishop of Winchester, the most artful of men and the greatest of flatterers, determined to bring F A S Lesselles & Lambert

Cent. XVI. Lambert to a folemn trial before himself in Westminster-hall. Letters were written to all the prelates and principal nobility to attend this trial. When the appointed day arrived, the King appeared in great flate, clothed in white, and feated under a canopy of the fame colour, to denote the purity of his faith. The spiritual lords were feated on his right hand, and the temporal peers on his left; and the hall was crowded with spectators, attracted from all parts of the kingdom by the news of this extraordinary trial. When the prisoner was brought into the court, he appeared to be greatly amazed and disconcerted at the fight of the august assembly, and the stern countenance of the King, who, standing, commanded one of the bishops to declare the occafion of the meeting. This being done, the King, after railing at the prisoner with great vehemence for having changed his name, asked him, "Doft thou believe the real corporal presence " of the body and blood of Christ in the facra-"ment of the altar?" "I believe," faid Lambert, "with St. Augustine, the presence of " Christ in the facrament in a certain manner." The King, in a paffionate tone, commanded him to give a direct answer to the question. Lambert fell upon his knees, and began to praise the King for his goodness, in condescending to hear one of the humblest of his subjects; but Henry interrupted him, faying, he came not there to hear his own praifes; and commanded him inflantly to answer his question; which he did, by acknowledging that he did not believe the corporal presence of Christ in the facrament.

facrament. Ten bishops had been appointed to Cent. XVI. manage this debate, of which Cranmer was the first; who, addressing the prisoner with great mildness, attempted to prove from our Saviour's appearing to Paul at his conversion, that a body might be in more places than one at the fame time. But Gardiner thinking that he used too much gentlenefs, broke in and urged the fame argument with great asperity of language. He was followed by Tonftal of Durham, Stokesley of London, and other fix prelates, who in fuccession argued for the corporal presence from various topics. Lambert, who was a man of good fense and learning, and had made this controverfy very much his fludy, answered all his opponents in their turns, with great acuteness and strength of argument, though he was often interrupted, infulted, and ridiculed. At length, worn out with the fatigue of standing five hours, and disputing with fo many antagonists, he remained filent. The King then asked him, "Will you live, or " die?" "I commit my foul," faid he, " to the " mercy of God, and my body to the mercy of "Your Majesty."-" I will have no mercy," faid Henry, "on heretics;" and commanded Cromwell to read the fentence, which condemned the prisoner to be burnt as an obstinate heretic. This cruel fentence was executed with circumstances of uncommon cruelty 91. It is impossible to contemplate this pompous display of barbarous inhuman bigotry without furprise and horror. May God preserve this happy island from

Cent. XVI. the return of that infernal spirit! Some have imagined that Cranmer, on this occasion, argued against the conviction of his own mind. But this is a mistake; there is sufficient evidence that at this time, and for fome years after, he was a firm believer of the corporal presence. 92

Many . holidays abolished.

While Henry was thus facrificing his innocent fubjects to his bigotted attachment to the tenets of the church of Rome, he was doing fome things which contributed not a little to reformation. The Romish calendar was crowded with faints: and the prodigious number of holidays greatly impeded industry and promoted riot and debauchery. He issued a proclamation, A. D. 1536. abolishing all the holidays in harvest, from July 1st to September 20th, except three, commanding the feafts of the dedication of all the churches in England, commonly called wakes, to be kept on one day, the first Sunday in October, and prohibiting the observation of the feasts of the patrons of churches 93. This act and proclamation was fent to all the bishops, with a letter from the King, commanding them firictly to fee it put in execution in their respective dioceses; and it was enforced by fubfequent injunctions. By this, many days were refcued from riot, to be employed in ufeful labour.

Bible translated.

There was nothing the friends of the old learning (as the tenets of popery were then called) more dreaded and deprecated, than the translation of the scriptures into English, and granting the use of them to the people; nor was there any

⁹² Strype's Cranmer, ch 18. p. 66. 93 Wilkin, tom. iii. p. 823. thing

thing that the friends of reformation more ar- Cent. XVI. dently laboured to procure. This was a long and violent ftruggle between the two parties. bishop Warham sent a pastoral letter to all the prelates of his province, A. D. 1526., acquainting them that certain children of iniquity, blinded by malice, had translated the New Testament into English to spread herefy, and ruin men's fouls; and that fome of these pernicious books had been brought into England. He directed them, therefore, to command all persons within their dioceses, who had any of these dangerous books, to deliver them up to their bishop, or his commissary, within thirty days, under the pain of excommunication, and of being punished as heretics 94. Four years after this, the cry for a translation of the Bible, and the opposition to it still continuing, the King published a proclamation; in which he told his fubjects, that he had confulted the two primates, and feveral other bishops and learned men: " and that, by all those virtuous, discreet, " and well-learned perfonages in divinity, it is " thought that it is not necessary the scriptures be 46 in the English tongue, and in the hands of the " common people. And that having respect to the malignity of this present time, with the inclinations of the people to erroneous opinions, " the translation of the New Testament and the "Old into the vulgar tongue of the English, 46 should rather be the occasion of continuance or " increase of errors among the said people, than 46 any benefice or commodity towards the weal of

Cent. XVI. " their fouls 95." Such were the fentiments of the King and prelates of England on this fubject at that time. But after Henry began to quarrel with the Pope, and Cranmer was advanced to the primacy, he changed his opinion, and began to liften to the opinions of his subjects, to have the fcriptures in a language they understood. When Doctor Cranmer was advanced to the primacy, he flood in the highest degree of favour with the King, which was the cause of his unexpected promotion. This gave him fo much influence and authority in the church, that the convocation of his province, December 9th, A.D. 1534., confented and agreed that he should make application to the King to name and appoint certain honest and learned men to translate the scriptures into English, to be put into the hands of the people, for their instruction 96. Cranmer applied to the King accordingly, and obtained a commission to himself and some other learned men, to prepare a translation of the Bible, for the instruction of his subjects. For expedition in this work, which he had much at heart, he divided the Bible into feveral parts, and gave one to each translator. When the tranflation was finished, the printing of it was committed to Richard Grafton and Edward Whitchurch, who obtained permission from Francis to print it at Paris 97. But on a complaint from the French clergy, the part that was then printed was feized. The printers, however, were permitted to retire with their types and preffes, and

97 Strype's Cranmer, Append. No. xxxi.

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finished

⁹⁵ Wilkin, p. 741. 95 Ibid. p. 776.

finished their work in London. When Cranmer Cent. XVI. received fome copies of this Bible, he faid it gave him more joy than if he had received a prefent of £10,000. The King, by proclamation, A. D. 1537., commanded one of these Bibles, at the equal expence of the incumbent and the parishioners, to be deposited in every parish-church, to be read by all who pleased; and as some towns and parishes did not obey this first proclamation, it was enforced in a fecond, with fevere penalties 98. At last Cromwell procured permission, A.D. 1539., to all the fubjects, to purchase copies of this English Bible for the use of themselves and their families 99. By fuch flow steps, the people of England obtained the inestimable privilege of peruling the word of God in their own language, which had been long denied them. This privilege was not obtained without much difficulty and opposition from the popish party.

Besides this translation of the Bible, some Other, other books were published about this time, by books. the King's authority, for the instruction of his Subjects; as the King's Primer, A. D. 1535., which was a collection of twenty-nine small tracts, confifting of explanations of the creed, the Lord's prayer, the ten commandments, and feveral pfalms and prayers for different occasions; the Bishops' Book, A. D. 1537., or the godly and pious institution of a Christian Man, which was drawn up by a committee of bishops, and

⁹⁸ Wilkin, p. 856.

⁹ Strype's Crammer, ch. 17. Append. No. xxv.

cent, XVI. revised and corrected by the King 100. Though thefe books contained too many of the peculiar tenets and superstitious ceremonies of the church of Rome, they contributed not a little to diffuse a fpirit of inquiry among the people, and thereby promoted the reformation. The Bishops' Book, or the Institution of a Christian Man, was subscribed by the two archbishops and nineteen bishops, and confirmed by an act of parliament. The publication of the English Bible, and of these books, gave great joy to the friends of the reforma-

Images removed.

The images and relics of faints had long been the chief objects of the fuperstitious veneration of the people of England, and of all the other nations of Europe in communion with the church of Rome. This kind of devotion was very much encouraged by the clergy, especially by the monastics, who had the custody of those images and relics, and were enriched by the offerings of their deluded worshippers. To increase their gains, they published accounts of miraculous cures pretended to be wrought by certain images, and were guilty of many other deceits and impositions. Some of these were discovered and exposed at the diffolution of the monasteries. which gave a check to that species of superstition 101. But many images and relics ftill re-

or Strype's Mem. ch. 31. Cranmer, ch. 13.

A crucifix at Boxley in Kent, which moved its head, arms, and legs, by fprings and wheels concealed in the body of it, was managed by a prieft. The blood of Christ at Hales in Gloucestershire. as it was pretended, was discovered to be the blood of a duck renewed weekly. Burnet, p. 242.

mained in cathedrals and other churches, that Cent. XVI. were the objects of popular veneration, and attracted crowds of pilgrims. The King therefore fent instructions to all the bishops, A. D. 1538., directing them to command their clergy to teach the people in their fermons, "not to repose their "trust and affiance on works devised by men's " fantafies, as in wandering to pilgrimages, offer-"ing of money, candles, or tapers, to feigned " relics or images, or kiffing or licking the fame, " or fuch like fuperflition." They were further instructed, that if they knew of any such feigned images in any of their dioceses, that were abused with pilgrimages or offerings, to take them down without delay, for avoiding that most detestable offence of idolatry 102. Besides these general instructions, particular injunctions were given for pulling down some of the richest and most frequented shrines, as that of St. Richard at Colchester, and of St. Thomas Becket at Canterbury 103. But as Becket had long been efteemed the greateft of faints, attracted the greatest crowds of pilgrims, and received the most valuable of offerings, he was treated with greater ceremony. He was folemnly tried before the King in council, and found to be neither a faint, nor a martyr. Not a faint, because he had rebelled against his sovereign; not a martyr, because he had fallen in a fray, in which he was the aggressor. He was therefore condemned as a traitor, all the rich ornaments of his altar and shrine confiscated, his festival abolished, and all his images thrown down, 104

Fox, p. 102. Wilkin, p. 840. 194 Ibid. p. 835. 847.

Cent. XVI.

Thus far had the reformation of the church of England proceeded before the meeting of the parliament in April 1539., when an effectual stop was put to its further progrefs, though much remained to be reformed. As the changes that had been made were chiefly owing to the influence of Archbishop Cranmer and Lord Cromwell with the King, fo the stop that was now put to any further changes was partly owing to the decline of that influence, and partly to the infinuating arts and perfuations of the popish party. Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, reprefented to the King, that the Emperor and the Kings of France and Scotland, at the infligation of the Pope, were meditating an invalion of his dominions; that many of his own subjects were fo much offended with the late innovations in religion, and fo much disquieted by their fears of greater innovations, that they were ripe for rebellion; and that the only way to avert all thefe dangers would be to convince the world by some fignal act, that though he had withdrawn from the obedience of the Pope, he had not renounced the catholic faith. Some of the reformers also contributed not a little to alienate the King's mind from them, by declaiming with too much vehemence against certain doctrines of the church of Rome, to which he was still attached.

Influenced by these, and perhaps by other motives with which we are unacquainted, Henry resolved to proceed no farther in the road of reformation, and to secure the remaining tenets and

ceremonies

ceremonies of the church of Rome by a law, Cent. XVI. with the most intimidating fanctions.

The parliament met April 28th, and the Lord Parlia-Chancellor Audley May 5th presented the following meffage from the King to the house of peers: "That it was His Majesty's defire above " all things, that the diverfities of opinions con-" cerning the Christian religion, in his kingdom, " should be with all possible expedition plucked " up and extirpated: and therefore fince this " affair was of fo extraordinary a nature, that it " could not well be determined in a fhort time, " confidering their various fentiments, by the " whole house, the King thought it necessary, if " it feemed good unto them, that they should " chuse a committee of themselves to examine " into these different opinions; and whatever " they decreed concerning them, might be with " all convenient speed communicated to the " whole parliament." The house complied with this meffage, and chose a committee of ten members, five of the old and five of the new learning, which was thought to be most equitable 105. But it did not contribute to expedition: for after eleven meetings and many warm debates, they could agree upon nothing; nor was there any probability that they ever would agree, which made it necessary to adopt some other method.

The Duke of Norfolk, who was at the head of the popish party, and in high favour with the King, acquainted the peers, May 16th, that their committee could come to no agreement.

Cent. XVI. He there laid before the house the fix following articles to be examined by the whole parliament; and that their determination upon them should be formed into a law, to which all the fubjects should be compelled to conform by certain penalties:

- 1. Whether the facrament of the altar be the real body of our Lord, without transubstantiation, or not? 106
- 2. Whether that facrament should be given to the laity in both kinds or not?
- 3. Whether vows of chastity made by men or women ought to be observed by the law of God, or not?
- 4. Whether private maffes ought to be retained by the law of God or not?
- 5. Whether priefts may marry by the law of God, or not?
- 6. Whether auricular confession to a priest be necessary by the law of God or not?

Thefe were the questions that were the great fubjects of those violent disputes between the friends and enemies of the Reformation, that disturbed the peace of the kingdom; and it was to put an end to these disputes, by giving victory to the one party, and imposing filence on the other, that a parliamentary decision of them was now required. The popish party possessed decifive advantages in the discussion of these questions in this parliament. The King ardently defired them to be determined in favour of that party, and his influence was irrefiftible. The

Provided the corporal presence was acknowledged, the popish party was willing to give up this word.

liamentary abbots had not yet refigned their Cent.XVI. feals, and twenty of them were actually prefent in the house of peers 107. The other party, however, did not tamely yield the victory; but having scripture, reason, and the most ancient fathers on their fide, they supported their opinions with great spirit, and protracted their proceedings toa great length. Archbishop Cranmer, it is said, maintained the tenets of the reformers no lefs than three days, with fuch dignity, eloquence, and learning, as compelled the admiration of his greatest enemies 108. Numbers at length prevailed. All the fix questions were determined in conformity to the doctrines of the church of Rome; and the Lord Chancellor reported to the house May 30th, "that it was His Majesty's " pleafure that fome penal flatute should be en-" acted, to compel all his fubjects, who were any " way differenters or contradictors of thefe articles, "to obey them." The house appointed the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Bishops of Ely and St. Afaph, with Doctor Petre a mafter in Chancery, to prepare one bill; and the Archbishop of York, the Bishops of Durham and Winchester, with Doctor Trigonnell, also a master in Chancery, to prepare another. Both bills were communicated to the King on Sunday June ift, and he preferred that, prepared by the Archbishop of York and his committee, who were all zealous for the old learning; and there is good evidence that a great part of that bill was drawn

Dugdale's Summons to Parl. p. 501.

¹⁰⁸ Herbert, p. 219.

Cent. XVI. by the King himfelf 109. To make it pass more eafily, the Lord Cromwell, by the King's direction, laid the above fix questions before the lower house of convocation June 2d, and obtained anfwers to them agreeable to the tenets of the church of Rome, expressed in very strong terms; to convince parliament that these were the fentiments of the clergy ". At last this famous bill was brought into the house of peers June 7th, and passed June 10th; on which day the King fent a message to Archbishop Cranmer, defiring him not to come to the house, since he could not give his affent. But he returned for an answer, that he thought it his duty to attend, and declare his diffent "; a very bold answer confidering to whom it was made. This bill passed the house of commons on June 16th, and received the royal affent on the 28th, the last day of the session.

Act of the

By this act, commonly called the bloody act, fix articles. if and person by word, writing, printing, or any other way denied or disputed the real presence of the natural body and blood of our Saviour Jefus Chrift, conceived by the Virgin Mary, in the bleffed facrament of the altar, after the confecration, under the form of bread and wine; or that in the flesh under the form of bread, is not the very blood of Chrift; or that with the blood under the form of wine, is not the very flesh of Christ; he was to be adjudged an heretic, and to fuffer death by burning; and all his lands, goods, and chattels, were to be forfeited to the King, as in the case of high treason. If any affirmed or taught that communion in both

²c9 Wilkin. p. 848. 110 Ibid. p. 845. 111 Fox, p. 1017. kinds

kinds was neceffary; or that priefts might marry; Cent. XVI. or that vows of chaftity were not perpetually binding; or that private maffes were not lawful and laudable; or that auricular confession to a priest was not necessary; they were to suffer death as felons 112. Commissioners were appointed in every county to discover and apprehend all offenders against any part of this act, that none who were guilty might escape.

The atrocious cruelty of this act is too obvious cruelty of to need any illustration, Could any thing be that act. more barbarous than to confign to the flames all who had the courage and honefty to acknowledge. that they could not renounce their reason, and disbelieve the united testimony of all their senses? To condemn the clergy to celibacy, was fufficiently cruel; but to punish a person with death for faying fo, was the extreme of cruelty. But cruel as this act was, nothing could exceed the joy and exultation of the popish party on its passing, except the terror and dejection of the friends of the reformation. A member of the house of peers wrote thus in a letter still extant: " And " also news here, I assure you never prince shewed " himself so wise a man, so well learned, and so " catholic, as the King hath done in this parlia-" ment. With my pen I cannot express his mar-"vellous goodness, which is come to such ef-" fect, that we shall have an act of parliament so " spiritual, that I think none shall dare to fay, in " the bleffed facrament of the altar doth remain "either bread or wine after the confecration;

Cent. XVI. " nor that a priest may have a wife; nor that it " is necessary to receive our Maker in both "kinds; nor that private masses should not be " faid as they have been; nor that it is not ne-" ceffary to have auricular confession. Finally, " all in England have cause to thank God, and " most heartily to rejoice of the King's most " godly proceedings 113." On the other hand, many of the reformers fled to the continent to fave their lives. Shaxton Bishop of Salisbury, and Latimer Bishop of Worcester, resigned their fees and retired to a private flation 114. Archbishop Cranmer was greatly dejected, and fent away his wife to her friends in Germany. The King, however, had still so great a regard for him, that he fent the Duke of Norfolk and Lord Cromwell to dine with him, and to affure him of his unchangeable esteem and favour. 115

Too cruel to be executed.

The King and the friends of Rome overacted their part on this occasion, by making this act fo fanguinary that it could not be executed without rendering the kingdom a scene of unexampled horror and bloodshed. This soon appeared. The commissioners appointed to put it in execution in London, in fourteen days committed and indicted no fewer than five hundred persons; among whom were Shaxton and Latimer, and all the reforming preachers. The Lord Chancellor Audley waited upon the King, and reprefented the fatal effects of these violent proceedings in fuch ftrong colours, that Henry relented,

113 Strype's Cranmer, Append. No. xxvi.

¹¹⁴ Rym. p. 641. 643. 115 Strype's Cranmer, ch. 19.

and commanded the prisoners to be liberated 116. Cent. XVI. This gave a check to the too forward zeal of the commissioners in London, and in other parts of the kingdom; and while the Lord Cromwell retained his office of the execution of this terrible act, it was in a manner suspended. Melancthon, one of the most learned and moderate of the German reformers, who was much respected by the King, wrote him a long and pathetic letter, expostulating with him on the feverity of this law, exposing the artifices of Gardiner its chief promoter, and conjuring him to pursue milder measures, as more consistent with the spirit of christianity. "O impudent and wicked Win-" chefter! (faid he,) who, under these colourable " fetches, thinketh to deceive the eyes of Christ, "and the judgments of all the godly in the " world. These things have I written that you " may understand the crafty slights, and so judge " of the purpose and policy of these bishops "?"," This letter, it is probable, made some impression on the King's mind. However that may be, the ftorm did not fall fo fuddenly on the reformers as they dreaded, and their enemies defired, though it afterwards fell very heavy.

As the greater monasteries were furrendered New in this and the following year, and a great mass bishopof wealth in lands, money, and goods, had already come into the King's hands, it was now thought to be time to perform some of the pompous promifes that had been made to procure the diffolution of the religious houses. The Lord Cromwell

cent.XVI. brought a bill into the house of peers May 23d, to empower the King to erect new bishoprics, deanries, and colleges, by letters patent, and endow them out of the revenues of the suppressed monafteries. This bill was fo univerfally acceptable that it passed that house the same day; and was fent to the commons, by whom it was paffed with the same alacrity. A draught of the preamble of this bill, written in the King's own hand, is ftill extant; to which is annexed, in the fame hand, a scheme of eighteen new bishoprics, as many deanries and feveral colleges, the places where they were to be feated, and the monasteries out of which they were to be endowed 118. This is a proof that Henry intended great things. But before he proceeded to execute them, he had granted away fo many of the lands, and fquandered away fo much of the money, that he could not perform what he had projected. In virtue of the above act, he erected only fix new bishoprics, at the following places, viz. Westminster. Oxford, Peterborough, Briftol, Chefter, and Gloucester. These sees were all founded in the course of the years 1540. 1541. and 1542. 119 This was one of the greatest advantages the nation derived from the suppression of the religious houses. Before this, several of the dioceses were (and perhaps still are) too extensive.

Parliament.

The parliament, after two prorogations, met again April 12th, A.D. 1540. The Kinghad been long engaged in the irrational and hopeless project

119 Rym. tom. xvi. p. 795, &c.

Burnet, p.262. Strype's Mem. Append. No. cvii.

of compelling all his subjects to entertain exactly Cent. XVI. the fame religious opinions, and to change thefe opinions as often as he changed his own. With this view the cruel act of the fix articles had been lately made, to burn or hang all who diffented from the established system. The title of that act was: For abolishing diversity of opinions concerning the Christian religion. But with all its terrors it did not accomplish that end. Religious controversies and diversity of opinions still continued. The Lord Cromwell, as the King's vicegerent in spirituals, made a long speech to both houses, in which he acquainted them, that the King was grieved at the difcord and diffention that prevailed among his subjects in religion; and that he earnestly defired to bring them all to a perfect agreement in their religious principles, and a perfect uniformity in their religious worship. That in order to this, he had appointed one committee of bishops and learned men to prepare a fystem of the Christian doctrines, which all his fubjects should be compelled to believe; and another committee to fettle the religious rites and ceremonies, which all should be compelled to observe in worship. He told them further, that His Majesty, who was a true christian and a most learned divine, would affift both these committees. The parliament unanimously approved of the defign, and appointed the committees to meet every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday in the forenoon, and every day, except Sunday, in the afternoon, on that business. The committees laboured with great diligence in this arduous, or rather im-

Cent. XVI. practicable work, as appears from many of their papers that are still extant 120. But as they were composed of an almost equal number of members of the old and new learning, they proceeded very flowly, and could not finish their work in time to be prefented to parliament before its diffolution. This was forefeen, and the parliament near the end of the fession made a very extraordinary law to oblige all the fubjects of the kingdom to believe a fystem of doctrines that was not yet composed, and to observe a system of ceremonies that was not yet prepared. By this law it was enacted, "That whatfoever was " determined by the archbishops and bishops, and other divines now commissionated for " that effect; or by any other appointed by the " King, and published by the King's authority, " concerning the Christian faith, or the ceremo-" nies of the church, should be believed and " obeyed by all the King's fubjects, as well as " if the particulars fo fet forth had been enumerated in this act 121." This feems to be the utmost bounds to which submission, not to say feverity, could be carried.

Perfecution.

Thomas Lord Cromwell, knight of the garter. lord privy feal, lord chamberlain, and lord vicegerent, was created earl of Effex, April 14th; and to all these honours and great offices he had been raifed from a very humble station by the King's favour. But his fall was as fudden as his rife was great. When he was fitting in council

¹²⁰ Strype's Mem. Append. No. lxxxviii. Burnet, bookiii. Records. No. xxi.

¹²¹ Burnet, p. 283.

June 10th, not conscious of any guilt, or appre- Cent. XVI. henfive of any danger, he was feized and committed to the Tower. He was attainted by an act of parliament for herefy and high treason, without being heard, and beheaded on Towerhill July 28th. The friends of the reformation foon found that they had fustained a mighty loss by the fall of this great man; for he was hardly laid in his grave, when three of the most learned and zealous preachers of the new learning. Doctor Robert Barnes, Thomas Garret, and William Hierome, were burnt July 30th in Smithfield for herefy, on the act of the fix articles 122. Three papifts, Powel, Fatherstone, and Abell, who had been found guilty of treason for denying the King's fupremacy, were hanged, drawn, and quartered, at the same time and place; which made a foreigner, who was a spectator of this horrid scene, cry out, "Good God! how unhappy are the people of this " country, who are hanged for being papifts, or " burnt for being enemies to popery." 123

Doctor Edmund Bonar had been a most active agent for the King in his contest with the court of Rome, and a zealous advocate for his supremacy, which recommended him to Cromwell and Cranmer; and by their influence he was promoted to the fee of Hereford, and foon after translated to that of London. But they were deceived by appearances, and knew not his real character. He was a bold, ambitious, unprincipled, and cruel man. Perceiving that the popish party prevailed at court, and being placed at the head of the commissioners for executing

Cent. XVI. the act of the fix articles in London, he acted with great violence and cruelty in that capacity. Of his cruelty at this time, we shall only give one example, as too many of the fame kind will afterwards occur. One Richard Mekins, a young man, or rather a boy, not above fifteen years of age, had been heard to fay, that the facrament was only a ceremony, or a fignification. For this he was imprisoned and brought to trial. Bonar, in his charge to the grand jury, exhorted them to have no mercy on heretics of any age or condition. Two witnesses were produced; the one declared that he heard the prisoner say, that the facrament was only a ceremony: and the other, that he heard him fay, that it was only a fignification. The jury gave in their verdict, that they found nothing. On this Bonar stormed, and fent them back to reconfider the matter. They gave the fame verdict a fecond time, which threw the Bishop into a violent rage, and made him pour out a torrent of threatsand curses. The jury being asked on what they founded their verdict; anfwered, on the inconfiftency of the evidence Being told by the Recorder, that as the courtfuftained the evidence of these witnesses, that was a fufficient reason for them to sustain it; they found the bill, and the petty jury found the prisoner guilty of speaking against the corporal presence of Christ in the sacrament. This unhappy youth was quite illiterate, and professed his willingness to believe any thing they pleased to dictate, to save his life; but in vain. He was committed to the flames, and reduced to ashes 124. A strain of

cruelty that is almost incredible, but is too well Cent. XVL attested to be doubted. Several others were burnt in different parts of England: and multitudes were imprisoned and involved in great diftrefs, by the commissioners for executing the act of the fix articles.

From this period Henry became very unfteady The King and fluctuating in his fentiments and conduct with respect to religion, sometimes forwarding but more frequently reftraining reformation, and even restoring some of the superstitious ceremonies that had been abolished. He renewed, however, this year, 1541., May 6., his injunctions to the clergy, to provide English Bibles of the largest volume, and deposit them in their churches, for the use of their people; his former injunctions on that subject having been generally difobeyed by those who were enemies to reformation 125. He also republished October 4th. his injunctions for removing out of cathedrals and other churches, all shrines and images to which pilgrimages had been made, and offerings had been presented, with all tables recording pretended miracles, as his former injunctions for that purpose had been very imperfectly executed 126. But about the fame time he published a proclamation, commanding the festivals of several faints which had been abolished, to be reftored and observed. 127

He had been prevailed upon, chiefly by the im- English portunities of Cromwell and Cranmer, to appoint Bible. an English translation of the Bible to be made, and

Cent. XVI. a copy of it to be deposited in every church; and had even permitted private perfons to have copies of it in their houses for the use of themfelves and their families. This was exceedingly difagreeable to the great body of the clergy, who were enemies to all reformation. They made loud complaints, that the laity abused this privilege, by reading aloud to great crowds in the time of mass, by commenting upon, and disputing about the scriptures, which gave rife to all the new opinions (which they called herefies) that prevailed. They complained also, that the translation was faulty in many places, and calculated to countenance herefy. These complaints at length had their effect. Henry was provoked that any of his subjects dared to entertain opinions different from those he had dictated to them: and afcribing this to the use of the scriptures in their cwn language, he determined to fet limits to that liberty, or to take it entirely away. A convocation met at St. Paul's in January, A. D. 1542., and Archbishop Cranmer declared to both houses, that it was the King's intention that the prelates and clergy should consult together about the unfettled state of religion, and deliberate about the most proper remedies, and correct what they thought stood in need of correction, particularly the English translation of the Old and New Teftament. The primate directed the lower house to deliberate on these things, and report the refult of their deliberations. In the third fession, February 3d, this question was put, Whether the great English Bible should continue to be used in

the church or not? The majority were of opinion, Cent. XVI. that it could not be continued till it was revised. and corrected. In a subsequent session, one committee of bishops and doctors was appointed to revise and correct the English translation of the New Testament, and another that of the Old Testament. The majority of both these committees were against any English translation of the scriptures; and determined not to be in hafte to execute their commission. To puzzle the matter, Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, who was at the head of the popish party, and one of the committee for revising the New Testament, produced a list of one hundred Latin and Greek words which he pretended had a peculiar majesty and fignificancy in them, which could not be preserved in English, and therefore proposed that they should be retained in the translation. This abfurd propofal was evidently defigned to render the translation almost useless. The Archbishop, perceiving the refractory temper of the clergy, obtained a mandate from the King to the convocation, commanding them to refer the revifal of the English Bible to the two universities, which they reluctantly obeyed. 128

The popish party, under the influence of the Duke of Norfolk and the Bishop of Winchester, still prevailing at court, the reformation rather declined than advanced. An act very unfavourable to it was made in the next fession of parliament, that began January 22d, A.D. 1543. By that act the liberty of reading the English Bibles

Cent. XVI. in the churches was taken away, and they were removed. None under the rank of gentlemen were to have English Bibles in their possession, or to read them in private; and the subjects were commanded to regulate their faith and practice by the injunctions published, and to be published, by the King. The penalties by which that act was enforced, breathed that barbarous spirit with which the supporters of popery were then animated. For the first offence, they were to recant; for the fecond, to bear a faggot; and for the third, they were to be burnt. 129

King's book.

Henry having thus deprived his subjects of the use of the Scriptures in their own language, made hafte to furnish them with that perfect system of the Christian doctrines that he had promised. The committee of bishops and doctors appointed to prepare that fystem had applied to it with great diligence for a confiderable time, and it was published May 29th, A. D. 1543., with this title: " A necessary Doctrine and Erudition " for any Christian Man, set forth by the "King's Majesty." It had a preface written by the King, or at least in his name, commending it highly, and exhorting and commanding all his subjects to study it diligently, and to make it the rule of their faith and manners, to put an end to all diverfity of opinions in religion. The following paragraph in the preface to this once famous book, defigned to supply the place of the Bible, gives a very diffinet account of its method and contents: " For knowledge of the " order of the matter in this book contained.

129 Statutes, 34 Henry VIII. cap. 1.

" Forafmuch

" Forasmuch as we know not perfectly God, but Cent. XVI. " by faith, the declaration of faith occupieth in "this treatife the first place. Whereunto is next " adjoining, the declaration of the articles of our " creed, concerning what we should believe. And " incontinently after them followeth the explica-"tion of the feven facraments. Then followeth conveniently the declaration of the ten com-" mandments, being by God ordained the highway wherein each man should walk in this life; " to finish fruitly his journey here, and afterwards " to rest eternally in joy with him; which because ee we cannot do of ourfelves, but have need always " of the grace of God, as without whom we can " neither continue in this life, nor without his " fpecial grace do any thing to his pleafure, " whereby to attain the life to come, we have, " after the declaration of the ten commandments. " expounded the feven petitions of our Pater " Nofter, wherein be contained requests and fuits " for all things necessary to a Christian man in "this present life; with declaration of the Ave " Maria, as a prayer containing a joyful rehearfal " and magnifying God in the work of the in-" carnation of Christ, which is the ground of " our falvation, wherein the bleffed Virgin our " Lady, for the abundance of grace wherewith "God endowed her, is also with this remembrance honoured and worshipped. And forafmuch as the heads and fenfes of our people " have been imbufied, and in these days travailed with the understanding of free will, " justification, good works, and praying for fouls departed; VOL. XII.

Cent. XVI. " departed; we have, by the advice of our clergy, " for the purgation of erroneous doctrines, de-" clared and fet forth openly, and without ambi-" guity of speech, the mere and certain truth "in them; fo as we verily trust, that to know "God, and how to live after his pleafure, to the " attaining everlafting life in the end, this book " containeth a perfect and fufficient doctrine, grounded and established in holy Scripture 130." Such were the contents of this royal publication, the established standard of truth and orthodoxy, by which all the people of England were to regulate their faith and practice, till the King thought proper to change his opinion; and then all his fubjects were bound, by an act of parliament, to make a fimilar change in their opinions. It is difficult to conceive how tyranny in the King, and fervility in the parliament, could be carried further.

The King's Primer.

Henry laboured this point of uniformity with uncommon ardour, and feems to have determined that none of his fubjects should think, speak, or act, in public or in private, in matters of religion, but as he directed them. Not contented with dictating a fystem of doctrines which they were to believe, and of the ceremonies they were to practife in the church, he published a manual of prayers, which he strictly commanded all his subjects to use in their private devotions, prohibiting the use of any other prayers in their closets. This was called the King's Primer Book; and in his preface to it, he acquaints his loving fubjects, "That for a fmuch as

" we have bestowed right great labour and dili- Cat. XVI. gence, about fettling a perfect flay in the other " parts of our religion, we have thought good to " bestow our earnest labour in this part also, " being a thing as fruitful as the best, that men 66 may know both what they pray, and also with " what words, left things special good and prin-" cipal, being inwrapped in ignorance of the " words, should not perfectly come to the mind " and to the intelligence of men; or elfe things " being nothing to the purpose, nor very meet to " be offered unto God, should have the less effect " with God, being the distributor of all gifts 131." In a word, Henry was determined to reduce all his fubjects to a most correct and perfect uniformity in all things, even the most trivial, that related to religion. Some of them, for example, kept St. Mark's day as a fast, and others of them kept it as a feast. He was much offended at this, and published a royal injunction to all his loving subjects, to eat flesh on St. Mark's day '32. This was not one of his most disagreeable injunctions.

After the fall of Cromwell Earl of Effex, Arch- Cranmer bishop Cranmer was in a dangerous situation, in danger. and had a difficult part to act. As he knew the animofity of the popish party against him, and their great influence at court, he was not ignorant of his danger, and endeavoured to guard against it, by acting with the greatest caution. and by living as privately as his flation would permit. But all his caution and privacy would not have preferved him, if the King had not en-

cent. xvi. tertained fuch a strong conviction of his integrity, and so grateful a sense of his services, as could not be shaken by all the efforts of his enemies. Of this it may not be improper to give one example. After feveral plots, equally artful and iniquitous against the Archbishop, had mifcarried, the Duke of Norfolk, the Bishop of Winchester, and the other popish members of the privy council, waited upon the King, and made a heavy complaint against the Archbishop, "That he and his learned men had so infected " the whole realm with their unfavoury doctrine, " that three parts of the land were become abo-" minable heretics; therefore they defired that " the Archbishop might be committed to the "Tower until this might be examined." When the King feemed unwilling to grant their defire, they represented, "That the Archbishop being " one of the privy council, no man dared to object " matter against him, unless he were first com-" mitted to durance; which being done, men " would be bold to tell the truth, and fay their consciences. The Kingatlength consented that "they might bring the Archbishop before the " council next morning, and examine him; and " if they found cause, they might commit him to "the Tower." Henry, probably repenting of what he had done, fent a meffenger to the Archbishop about midnight, desiring him to come and speak with him immediately. On his arriving, the King told him of the complaint. that had been made, and the confent that he had given, and asked him, "What say you, « My

" My Lord; have I done well or ill?" The pri- Cent. XVI. mate humbly thanked the Kingforgiving him this warning, and declared he was content to be committed to the Tower for the trial of his doctrine, if he might have a fair trial, and hoped that His Majesty would take care to have him fairly tried. " O Lord God! (cried the King;) what fond fim-" plicity have you to permit yourfelf to be impri-" foned, that every enemy of yours may take ad-" vantage against you? Do you not know, that " when they have you once in prison, three or " four false knaves will soon be procured to wit-" ness against you, and condemn you? No, not " fo, My Lord; I have abetterregard to you than " to fuffer your enemies to overthrow you. Ap-" pear before the council; require them to pro-" duce your accusers; and if they refuse, shew "them this ring, (giving him a ring,) which they well know that I use for no other purpose, " but to call matters from the council into mine own hands." He was fent for by the council early next morning; and when he arrived, he was not admitted into the council chamber, but obliged to fland about an hour in the anti-chamber among fervants. The King being informed of this by the phyfician, Doctor Bulls, was much offended. "Have they ferved My Lord fo? (faid " he.) It is well enough; I shall talk with them " by and by." When the Archbishop was called in to the council, he was told, that complaints had been exhibited to the King and them, that he, and others by his permission, had infected the whole realm with herefy, and that it was the King's

Cent. XVI. King's pleafure that he should be committed to the Tower in order to his trial. When Cranmer had required to fee his accusers face to face before he was committed, and was refused, he faid, "I am forry, My Lords, that you have compelled " me to appeal from you to the King, who by " this token (prefenting the ring) hath taken this " matter into his own hands." This put a stop to their career. They waited in a body on the King to reftore his ring, and refign the cause into his hands. He received them with a ftern countenance, reproved them feverely for their contemptuous treatment of the Archbishop, and then added, " I would you should well understand, " that I account My Lord of Canterbury as faith-" ful a man towards me, as ever was prelate in " this realm, and one to whom I am many ways " beholden by the faith I owe unto God; (lay-" ing his hand on his heart;) and whoever loveth " me, will regard him on that account." This gave fuch a check to Cranmer's enemies, that they made no more attempts against him during this reign. 133

Prayers in English.

This striking proof of the steadiness of the King's friendship encouraged Cranmerto attempt the reformation of some of the many absurd superstitions that still remained. He proceeded, however, with great prudence and caution, and never attempted any change till he had first convinced the King of itspropriety, and obtained his permission and command. He had long wished to see the prayers of the church in English, that the people might pray

to God in language they understood, and might Cent. XVI. know for what they prayed. The King was preparing to invade France in person, A.D. 1544., and prayers and processions were to be made as usual for his fuccess; and the Archbishop embraced this opportunity to convince him, that the people would join in these prayers with much greater fervency, if they were in English, than they could do, ifthey were in an unknown tongue. By the King's permission, he composed a number of prayers in English, which he delivered to His Majesty for his perufal, who, having approved of them, fent them back to the primate, commanding him to cause them to be used in all the churches of his diocefe, and to fend copies of them to all the bishops of his province with a fimilar command. This royal injunction was probably composed by Cranmer, and is couched in very strong expresfive language. One reason assigned for this great innovation, of praying in their native tongue, is thus expressed: "That the people might feel the " godly tafte thereof, and godly and joyously " with thanks receive, embrace, and frequent the " fame." This injunction was dated June 11th. About two months after, when the navy was ready to fail, the council fent a fimilar injunction to the Archbishop, commanding him to order prayers and processions twice a-week in all the churches of his province for fuccess and victory to His Majesty's arms, and that the prayers should be in English 134. These injunctions gave great joy to the friends of the Reformation, who

cent. XVI. began to hope, that they would foon fee the whole fervice of the church in English.

Ceremonies abolished.

The King was prevailed upon at the fame time to abolish some of the superstitious ceremonies which still remained; such as watching and ringing bells all night on the vigil of All-hallows; that the images in churches, and the crofs, should not be covered with vails in the time of Lent, as they had been formerly: that none should kneel or creep to the crofs on Palm Sunday or any other time. The royal injunction for abolishing these ceremonies was procured by the application of the Archbishop, with the Bishops of Worcesterand Chichester, and the execution of it, as usual, was committed to the Archbishop. 135

Cranmer had for fome time been engaged in another work for promoting the reformation and fettlement of the church. This was the revifal of the canon law, or rather forming a new code of ecclefiaftical laws for the government of the church of England, The canon law had long been esteemed almost of divine authority, and far more excellent and obligatory than any other human laws. In that law, the authority and power of the Pope was carried to a most extravagant and impious height; and the laws of kings and princes, that were contrary to the decrees and canons of the Bishop of Rome, were of no force. After the abrogation, therefore, of the papal power, and the many other changes that had been made contrary to the canons, the authority of the

canon law could not be acknowledged in England; Cent. XVI. and it was not proper that the church should remain long without a fystem of laws suited to her circumftances. Accordingly the King gave a commission to thirty-two persons, (A.D. 1543.) fixteen of sprituality, and fixteen of the temporality, to examine all canons, conflitutions, and ordinances; and to establish all such laws ecclefiaftical as shall by the King and them be thought convenient to be used in all spiritual courts; and this commission was confirmed by parliament 136. This work was not finished till A.D. 1545., when it was presented to the King for his confirmation. But he either refused or neglected to confirm it: and this fystem of laws was not established till the fucceeding reign. Various reasons have been affigned for this; but they are only conjectures.

No further progress was made in the reformation Persecuof the church in the short remainder of this reign. tion. On the contrary, the perfecutions on the cruel act of the fix articles were renewed, and feveral persons were burnt, A.D. 1546., for denying the corporal prefence of Christ in the sacrament. The most remarkable of these sufferers was Mrs. Anne Askew, a lady of an opulent and ancient family in Lincolnshire, and, which was much more to her honour, of very uncommon ingenuity, learning, piety, and virtue. She was unhappily married to a Mr. Kyme, against her own inclination, by her father's authority. Her husband, who was a zealous Papift, treated her foill, that she was obliged to leave his house and went to London.

cent, XVI. Having expressed her disbelief of the corporal presence, she was apprehended, imprisoned, and examined by the council. At her examination the answered many questions with such acuteness, as furprifed her perfecutors. Sir Martin Bowes, Lord Mayor of London, thus addressed her: " Foolish woman, fayest thou that the priests can-" not make the body of Christ?"-" I have read," faid she, " that God made man, but I never read "that man made God."-" If a mouse," asked His Lordship, " eat the bread after it was consecrated, what shall become of the mouse? What " fayeft thou, foolish woman?"-"What shall be-" come of her fay you, My Lord?"-" I fay," replied he, "that that mouse is damned." - "Alas!" faid she, "Alas, poor mouse!" His Lordship did not think fit to ask her any more questions. She was tried by the commissioners for executing the act of the fix articles, found guilty, and condemned to the flames. After her condemnation it was discovered that she had conversed with the Duchess of Suffolk, the Countess of Hertford, and fome other ladies, who were fulpected of favouring the Reformation, and against whom they wished for evidence. She was therefore removed from Newgate to the Tower, and there interrogated concerning these ladies, but would discover nothing. She was then laid on the rack and tortured, in the presence, and, as it is said, by the hands of the chancellor, Lord Wriothesley, with so much severity, that it deprived her of the use of her limbs, but extorted no discovery. She was carried to Smithfield and placed at the flake in a chair,

and there reduced to ashes. She suffered with Cent. XVI. amazing cheerfulness; and one who was present at her execution fays, the had an angel's countenance and a fmiling face. John Lassels, a gentleman of a good family and fortune, who had a place at court; Nicholas Bellenian a prieft, and John Adams a taylor, were burnt at the fame place and time. The imaginary crime for which all these persons suffered this cruel death. was denying the corporal prefence of Christ in the facrament of the altar; a doctrine for which Henry continued to be a flaming zealot to his last moments, which were now approaching. He died January 6th, A. D. 1547. 137

The reformation of the church of England hath no concern with the personal character of this prince, or the motives of his conduct. It must stand or fall by its own merits. It was left by Henry in a very imperfect flate, but was happily carried much farther in the short reign of his amiable and virtuous fon Edward VI.

CHAPTER II. SECTION III.

The Ecclefiaftical History of Scotland, from the Accession of James IV. A.D. 1488., to the Death of James V. A.D. 1542.

THE ecclefiaftical hiftory of Scotland in the cent. XV. reign of James IV. contains very few events that merit a place in history, or at least very few fuch events have come to our knowledge. The

Cent. XV. truth is, that materials for a complete history of the church of Scotland before the Reformation, either do not exist, or are so scattered and secreted that it is impossible to collect them. Nor have we much reason to regret this. The history of this church in those benighted times, when ignorance, credulity, and fuperstition, with an abject fubmission to the imperious dictates of the Bishop of Rome, prevailed, could afford us but little rational instruction or entertainment. It will not be necessary, therefore, to divide this period into two fections, as the whole may be comprehended within moderate limits.

Shevez primate.

William Shevez was Archbishop of St. Andrew's and primate of Scotland at the accession of James IV. He appears to have acted a very bad part in the profecution of his predecessor Patrick Graham, who had the merit to procure the erection of his fee into an archbishopric, and thereby put an end to the pretentions of the archbishops of York to the primacy of the church of Scotland, which had been very troublesome. As the arts by which Shevez obtained his promotion were not very honourable, fo we hear of no good that he did after he had obtained it. His pride engaged him in a violent contest with Walter Blackater, the first archbishop of Glasgow, by his refusing to acknowledge him in that character. This contest, after having diffurbed the peace of the country for fome time, was at length compromifed. Glafgow was acknowledged to be an archbishopric; the bishoprics of Galloway, Argyle, and the Isles, affigned. affigned for its province, and the primacy referved to St. Andrew's. Archbishop Shevez died, and was buried at St. Andrew's, A. D. 1496. 138

The opinions of Wickliff were early introduced into Scotland, and in some places they took deep root and continued long. To eradicate thefe noxious weeds, (as they were then esteemed,) Archbishop Blackater held a provincial fynod at Glafgow, A.D. 1494., at which the King and council were present. Before this fynod, George Campbell of Cefnock, Adam Read of Baríkining, John Campbell of Newmills, Andrew Shaw of Polkemac, Helen Chambers, Lady Pokelly, Ifabel Chalmers, Lady Stairs, with about twenty others of inferior rank, in the counties of Kyle and Cunningham, were arraigned for herefy. The herefies of which these persons, who were commonly called the Lollards of Kyle, were accused, were the same with the doctrines of Wickliff, and nearly the fame with those of all the Protestant churches, intermixed with a few abfurd opinions, which they had rashly adopted, or which were falfely imputed to them by their enemies. Adam Read made a bold and spirited defence for himself and the others accused, which exposed the malice and ignorance of their accufers, and rendered them equally odious and ridiculous. This, however, would not have faved them, if the King, who had a friendship for some of the gentlemen, had not interposed, and put a ftop to the profecution 130. It is much to the honour of James IV. that he was an enemy to perfe-

¹³⁸ Spottifwood, p. 60, 61.

¹³⁰ Knox, p. 2, &c.

Cent. XVI. cution, and that not so much as one person suffered for his religious opinions in his reign. 140

Archbishops of St. Andrew's;

Archbishop Shevez was succeeded in the see of St. Andrew's by the King's brother, James Stewart, Duke of Rofs, Marquis of Ormond, Earl of Ardmannak, Lord of Brechen and Nevers, commendator of Dumfermline, and chancellor of the kingdom. Of this high-born prelate, who was loaded with fo many honours, we know nothing, but that he died young, A. D. 1503. He was fucceeded in his archbishopric by Alexander Stewart, the King's natural fon, a boy of about eight years of age. Though this nomination was contrary to feveral canons, the Pope, for political reasons, confirmed it; for which the King wrote him a letter of thanks, full of the warmest expresfions of gratitude; in which, among many other flattering things, he fays, "We have often fent " our letters to you, most blessed father, but " never in vain. It was one strong proof of your " paternal affection to me, that foon after your " exaltation to the apostleship, you sent me a full " remission of all my fins; which was the more " valuable, because the salvation of the soul was " more precious than all other things. But to "that inestimable favour you have now added an-" other, by committing the charge of the famous " archbishopric of St. Andrew's to my son, though he is but a child "." This was certainly intended for a compliment, though it was really a reproach. This youthful prelate, the pupil and

¹⁴⁰ Calderwood's Hift. MSS. vol. i. p. 41.

¹⁴ Epistolæ Regum Scotorum, vol. i. p. 3.

favourite of Erasmus, fell, with his royal father, in Cont. XVI. the fatal battle of Flodden, in the eighteenth year of his age.

Robert Blackater, the first archbishop of Glaf- of Glafgow, died as he was going on a pilgrimage to Je- gow. rusalem, A.D. 1509., and was succeeded in that see by James Beaton, of the ancient family of the Beatons of Balfour in Fife. This prelate rofe rapidly in the church, was deeply engaged in all affairs of the flate, and flared in the good and bad fortune of the parties with whom he was connected. 142

Another prelate flourished in this and the pre- Bishop Esceding reign, who is well entitled to a place in phingston. history, on account of his talents, his virtues, and his fervices and benefactions to his country. This was William Elphingston Bishop of Aberdeen. He was of an opulent mercantile family in Glafgow. and one of the first eleves of the university of that city. From thence he went to Paris, where, after he had fludied feveral years, he read lectures on the civil and canon law to crowded audiences with great applause. On his return to his native country he was promoted in the church, and employed in feveral embaffies both by James III. and James IV.; in which he acquitted himfelf with ability and fuccefs. His first bishopric was that of Rofs, from whence he was translated to Aberdeen. In this city he founded an university, in which he built, furnished, and endowed the first college. He also built the bridge over the river Dee 143. These were great, expensive, and useful

Spottifwood, p. 105.

¹⁴² See Biograph. Britan. art, James Beaton.

Cent. XVI. works from which his country derived great and permanent advantages. He lived admired and beloved for his charity, hospitality, public spirit, and other virtues, to a very advanced age. He was fo deeply affected with the deplorable difafter at Flodden, that he never recovered his wonted cheerfulness, and died the year after, A.D. 1514. To embalm the memory of great and good men, the benefactors and ornaments of their country, is the most pleasant and useful province of the historian.

Affembly of the clergy.

The popes in the times we are now delineating, confidered all the clergy in the Christian world as their immediate fubjects, and claimed and exercifed the right of taxing them at their pleafure. At this the clergy fometimes murmured and remonstrated, but were compelled to submit and pay these papal taxes. The Pope sent a legate, named Bajomanus, into Sootland, A. D. 1512., who held a fynod of the clergy, both regular and fecular, in the Dominican convent at Edinburgh, and demanded an annual tax of two shillings in the pound on every benefice of forty pounds a year and upwards. To this demand the fynod confented, but with much reluctance; and it continued to be levied till the Reformation by the name of Bajomanus's tax. 144

Competition for offices.

By the great flaughter of the nobility at Flodden, many of the principal offices, both in church and flate, became vacant, and the furviving clergy and nobles, instead of uniting together for the defence of their country, engaged in the most violent competitions for these vacant offices. For the arch- cent. xvi. bishopric of St. Andrew's three powerful competitors appeared; Gavin Douglas, uncle to the Earl of Angus, and afterwards Bishop of Dunkeld, was nominated by the Queen Regent, and supported by the Douglasses, who put him in posfession of the castle of St. Andrew's 145. John Hepburn, Prior of St. Andrew's, was elected by the convent, and supported by the Hepburns, a numerous and powerful clan. By his office of prior he was administrator of the see, and collected the rents of it during the vacancy; and by the affiftance of the clergy and people he expelled the fervants of his rival, the Bishop of Dunkeld, and got possession of the castle of St. Andrew's, in which he placed a garrison. The third competitor was Andrew Foreman, Bishop of Moray in Scotland, Archbishop of Bourges in France, and commendator of feveral rich abbies. Foreman was in fuch high favour with King James IV. that he obtained letters from him under the privy feal, permitting him to folicit the Pope for any benefice that became vacant in Scotland, any law to the contrary notwithstanding 145. Of this permission he now availed himself, and solicited fo effectually at the court of Rome that the Pope Leo X. promoted him to the vacant archbishopric, and to all the abbies the late Archbishop had possessed; and also appointed him his legatus a latere in Scotland. He was then on an embaffy at the court of France; but as foon as he had received his bulls from Rome he returned to Scot-

¹⁴⁵ Lefly, p. 374.
146 Epiftolæ Regum Scotorum, vol. i. p. 110.
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Cent.XVI. land to profecute his claims. It appears from an authenticletter of the Queen Regent to the Pope, that fhe had first nominated that excellent prelate William Elphingston, Bishop of Aberdeen, to the archbishopric, and that he had confented to accept of it; but his death prevented his promotion 147. In another letter the arrangement that was first intended by the court is thus delineated: "That William Bishop of Aberdeen " should be translated to St. Andrew's; that " that George Abbot of Holyrood-house should " be bishop of Aberdeen; Patrick Abbot of " Cambuskenneth should be abbot of Holyrood-"house; that the abbey of Cambuskenneth "fhould be given in commendam to Andrew "Bishop of Caithness; the abbey of Arbroath " to Gavin Douglas; Dumfermlin to James " Hepburn; Inchefferay to Alexander Stewart; "Glenluce to the Bishop of Lismore; and Cold-" ingham to David Hume 148." But this arrangement was disconcerted by the death of the Bishop of Aberdeen, and the subsequent contest for the primacy.

Letters to the Pope.

The Queen Regent and nobility were greatly interested in the disposal of these benefices. This appears from several letters written by them to the Pope and Cardinal with uncommon warmth. In these letters they put the Pope in mind "that "feveral of his predecessors had granted this "privilege to the Kings of Scotland by their "bulls; that they and their successors would "never grant any vacant prelacies in Scotland,

Epistola Regum Scotorum, vol.i. p. 184. 149 Ibid. p. 199.

"till they had waited eight months for the royal Cent. XVI. " nomination, which they would confirm." They declare in the strongest terms, "that they would " not fuffer their infant king to be deprived of "that privilege. They fpeak of Bishop Fore-"man with great asperity, as an upstart, and ee enemy to his king and country, for which the " parliament had juftly deprived him of all his offices, banished him the kingdom, and would " never fuffer him to return 149." But the Pope paid no regard to all this warmth and threatening.

If the learned, virtuous, and amiable Gavin Accom-Douglas was ever a competitor for the primacy, modation. as our historians affirm, he foon quitted the field to the other two competitors. When Bishop Foreman arrived in Scotland, both the court and the country were fo much incenfed against him, that he could hardly find any of the nobles willing to espouse his cause and publish his bulls. He was of the family of the Foremans of Hutton in the Merfe, who had long been partifans of the Humes. He applied therefore to the Lord, then one of the most powerful noblemen in the kingdom, and prevailed on him to published his bulls at the crofs of Edinburgh. This produced a great change in his favour; and many, both of the clergy and laity, who had a high veneration for the authority of the Pope, favoured his caufe. Things were in this state, when John Duke of Albany arrived in Scotland in June, A.D. 1515. He found the nation divided into two parties, and fo warmly engaged, that he dreaded a civil war. To prevent this, he proposed an accommo-

Cent. XVI. dation, which he at length accomplished. Bishop Foreman, who was very rich, and fonder of power than of money, made great facrifices to his rival to refign his pretentions to the primacy. He refigned the bishopric of Moray, the abbies of Arbroath, Drybrough, and Kilwinning, which were divided among Hepburn's friends: he allowed Hepburn to retain all the rents of the archbishopric which he had collected, and gave him apension, it is said, of three thousand crowns a year 150. To himself he referved only the archbishopric and the abbey of Dumfermline. The Duke of Albany wrote an account of this accommodation to the Pope; in which he bestowed the highest praises on Archbishop Foreman, for the generous facrifices he had made to preferve the peace of his country, and earneftly intreated His Holiness to make him a cardinal, which Julius II., his predecessor, had promised to do, in a letter to James IV.151

> The encroachments of the popes of those times on the rights both of private and of royal patrons, were productive of many inconveniencies and quarrels. The contest about the archbishopric was hardly ended, when another of the fame kind commenced, on the death of George Brown, Bishop of Dunkeld. The chapter chofe Andrew Stewart, fon to the Earl of Athole, and put him in possession of the castles, houses, and lands belonging to the fee. But Gavin Douglas, uncle to the Earl of Angus, was appointed bishop by the Pope. Stewart,

²⁵⁰ Epistolæ Regum Scotorum, vol. 1. p. 217.

fupported by his father, kept possession of the lands cent. XVI. and castles. The Regent interposed, and with much difficulty brought about an accommodation. Douglas resigned two benefices to Stewart, and obtained the bishopric. The Duke of Albany gave an account of this transaction to the Pope, by a letter dated at Edinburgh September 8th, A. D. 1516.; desiring him to ratify the contract of agreement, to prevent all doubts of its validity 152. In all these contests the papal candidate prevailed.

Archbishop Foreman enjoyed the high station for which he had ftruggled so hard and paid so dear, only about feven years. He was a prelate who possessed very uncommon talents for and dexterity in business, which gained him a high degree of favour with two fuccessive kings of Scotland, James III. and IV.; with two fucceffive popes, Julius II. and Leo X.; and with that wife prince, Lewis XII. of France; who all loaded him with benefices. Julius II. gave him the following character, in a letter to James IV .: "Your ambaffador, Andrew Bishop of Moray, " hath acted, and still continues to act, with so "much fidelity, prudence, diligence, and dex-" terity, that he hath given me the highest satis-" faction; and I think him worthy of a more " eminent flation in the church. For this reason, " and to gratify Your Majesty, I have requested ce the Pope to make him a cardinal at the next " nomination of cardinals 153." The death of the Pope prevented his obtaining that dignity. Like his royal master James IV. he was an

Epistolæ Regum Scotorum, vol. i. p. 222.

13 lbid. p. 138.
enemy

Cent.XVI. enemy to perfecution, and none fuffered for religion during his incumbency.

Contest.

Almost every vacancy of the see of St. Andrew's produced a contest between the courts of Scotland and of Rome. The kings of Scotland claimed a right to prefent to all the vacant prelacies in their dominions within eight months, and that the popes should grant to their prefentees the bulls necessary to their instalment. But the popes frequently filled up the vacancies without waiting for the royal prefentation. This was a direct violation of the privilege of prefenting within eight months, that had been granted and confirmed to the kings of Scotland by many bulls. But the popes were now become fo arbitrary, that they broke through every barrier that limited their power. On this occafion two competitors for the primacy took the field: James Beaton Archbishop of Glasgow, chancellor of the kingdom, prefented by the Regent; and Gavin Douglas Bishop of Dunkeld, who folicited and expected the papal appointment, by the great influence of Henry VIII. at the court of Rome. To counteract that influence great efforts were made. A letter was fent to the Pope, in the name of the King, the Regent, and the three estates of the kingdom; acquainting him, that Gavin Douglas Bishop of Dunkeld had fled to their enemy the King of England; for which they had banished him by an act of parliament, and earneftly intreating His Holiness not to listen to any application that might be made for appointing him archbishop of

St. Andrew's 154. His rival, Beaton, in his capa- Cent. XVI. city of chancellor, wrote a letter in the name of the privy council to Christiern King of Denmark; requesting him to give directions to his ambaffador at the court of Rome, to oppose the elevation of the Bishop of Dunkeld to the archbishopric of St. Andrew's and abbey of Dumfermline 155. How this contest would have ended is uncertain; if both competitors had lived to profecute their claims. But it was terminated by the death of the Bishop of Dunkeld: and Beaton was translated from Glasgow to St. Andrew's, A. D. 1523., without any further opposition.

Soon after this, the cruel spirit of persecution, Persecuwhich had been long reftrained, revived, and tion. raged with no little violence. The first who fell a facrifice to this infernal spirit, was Mr. Patrick Hamilton, a youth of noble birth, and nearly related to the royal family, being nephew to the Earl of Arran by his father, and to the Duke of Albany by his mother. Having early dicovered a tafte for learning, the abbey of Ferne, and fome other benefices, were given him, to enable him to profecute his fludies. With this view he went to the university of Marpurg in Germany, where he converfed with Francis Lambert, and became acquainted with the doctrines of Luther, which he cordially embraced, and hastened home to communicate the knowledge of them to his countrymen. On his arrival the warmth of his zeal made him declaim with vehemence against the corruptions and errors of the

¹⁵⁴ Epistokæ Regum Scotorum, vol. i. p. 328. 155 Ibid. p. 333. church. I 4

Cent. XVI. church. His eloquence, his youth, and noble birth, attracted crowded audiences, who heard him with admiration, and greedily imbibed his principles. This alarmed the fears, and inflamed the rage of the clergy. Archbishop Beaton invited him to a friendly conference in St. Andrew's. At his arrival there he was committed to the care of a friar Campbell, for his instruction and conversion. He was much an overmatch for his inftructor, whose real object was to discover and inform his enemies of his opinions. When this was accomplished, and the young King was fent on a pilgrimage to St. Dulhacks in Rofs, they feized Mr. Hamilton in his bed at midnight, and carried him to the castle. Next forenoon, February 28th, A. D. 1527., he was brought before the primate, the Archbishop of Glasgow, three other bishops, many abbots, priors, doctors, lawyers, profesiors of the univerfity, and a prodigious crowd of spectators, in the cathedral, and accused of holding and propagating the damnable herefies of Martin Luther. He did not deny the charge, but defended the doctrines he had taught with many arguments, which ferved only to render his condemnation more certain. He was accordingly condemned as an obstinate heretic, delivered to the fecular magistrate, carried from the bar to the flake, and burnt with circumflances of peculiar cruelty. Thus perished this learned, virtuous, and noble youth, in the twenty-third year of his age. The feverity of his fufferings, and the fortitude with which he bore them, excited the pity and admiration of the great body of the spectators; but bigotry

bigotry and felf-interest had so hardened the hearts of many of the clergy, that they applauded this barbarous deed as a most meritorious display of Christian zeal. The university of Louvain also wrote a letter to the Archbishop of St. Andrew's and his assessor, in which they loaded them with praises for burning so great a heretic; and exhorted them to persevere, till they had extirpated all the heretics in their country. 156

Tantum religio potuit suadere malorum.

To fuch black deeds doth superstition prompt.

The clergy foon found that they had no reafon to boaft of the good policy, or good effects, of their feverity. The propositions for which Mr. Hamilton had been condemned to the flames became public, awakened curiofity, and were examined by many of the clergy and laity, by the youth at the university, and even by the monks in their cells, who had never heard or thought of them before. The general refult of this examination was, that they appeared neither fo abfurd, nor fo pernicious, as to merit fo fevere a punishment. and not a few were fully convinced of their truth. and cordially embraced them. This foon appeared even in the city of St. Andrew's. Friar Alexander Seaton, confessor to the King, preached several fermons in that city in the Lent after Mr. Hamilton's execution. In these fermons he insisted only on the necessity of repentance, faith, and holiness of life, without ever mentioning purgatory, pilgrimages, miracles, worship of saints and images, the

HISTORY OF BRITAIN. 122 Cent. XVI. usual subjects of the sermons of those times. He alfo used some expressions which seemed to reflect on the negligence and vices of the clergy. The uncommon strain of these sermons raised a fuspicion that he inclined to herefy; and after he had left the city, another friar was fet up to preach against his doctrines. When he heard this he returned, and in fome other fermons confirmed all he had advanced. He was then brought before the Archbishop, who charged him with having faid, that bishops ought to preach, and that those who did not preach were dumb dogs. "Your infor-" mers, My Lord, (faid Seaton) must have been very ignorant persons, who could not distinguish between the apostle Paul, and the prophet " Isaiah, and friar Seaton. I said, indeed, that " Paul exhorted bishops to preach, and that Isaiah called those who did not preach, dumb dogs. "But of myfelf, I faid nothing. If that is herefy, " Paul and Isaiah are theheretics." The primate was nettled at this fmart reply; but he concealed his refentment till he alienated the King from his confessor, which was not a difficult task. That young prince had been debauched by those who had the charge of his education, and unhappily indulged himfelf in vague amours; for which his

confessor had reproved him sharply. Father Seaton observing a change in the King's manner of receiving him, took the alarm, and made his efcape to Berwick. From thence he wrote a long expostulatory letter to the King, in which he offered to return and vindicate his doctrines, if he might have a fair trial before impartial judges.

judges. Having received an answer to this letter, Cent. XVI. he proceeded to London, where he found an afylum in the family of the Duke of Suffolk. 157

The death of Mr. Hamilton, and the flight of friar Seaton, did not deter others from adopting their opinions, and exposing themselves to the same dangers and fufferings: on the contrary, it fo much increased the number and boldness of their followers, that the church history of Scotland in the remainder of this reign confifts of little elfe but the trials and burnings of heretics. To give a minute detail of all those scenes of horror, would be very painful to the writer, and could not be very pleafant to the reader. It may be fufficient therefore to fay, that many, both of the clergy and laity, were committed to the flames for herefy; that many others, eminent for their virtue and learning, abandoned their country to avoid the fame fate; and that not a few wounded their consciences by recanting their opinions, to preferve their lives. 158

James Beaton, Archbishop of St. Andrew's, had Cardinal paid great attention to the education and promotion of his nephew David Beaton. Besides several benefices which he procured for him while he was ftill a young man, he refigned the rich abbey of Aberbrothock in his favour; and the Pope, at the requifition of the King, confirmed the tranfaction159. He was a great favourite of the Duke of Albany during his regency, and afterwards a greater favourite of the young King, who ap-

¹⁵⁸ Ibid. Knox, p. 16, &c. 157 Spottifwoode, p. 65.

¹⁵⁹ Epistolæ Regum Scotorum, p. 339.

Cent. XVI, pointed him lord privy feal A. D. 1528., from which time he was his chief confident and prime minister. He was fent upon several embassies to the court of France, where he negotiated both the King's marriages, and ingratiated himself fo much with Francis, that he granted him some fingular favours, and among others the rich bishopric of Merepoix. His uncle becoming infirm in his old age, he appointed him his co-adjutor, and devolved upon him all his power; the Pope created him a cardinal December 20th, A.D. 1539. The old Archbishop died A.D. 1539., and disposed of all his benefices by his testament, and particularly of his archbishopric, to his nephew and coadjutor. This destination in other circumstances would have been difregarded; but being perfeetly agreeable both to the King and the Pope, was confirmed 100. Such was the rife of this aspiring prelate to a power almost unlimited, which he employed to the most pernicious purposes.

Perfecution.

The Pope had fixed his eyes on the younger Beaton some time before this, as a proper instrument to crush all heretics and heresies in Scotland, and with that view had favoured his promotion. A more proper instrument could not have been chosen for such a work. His uncle, the late primate, had been a cruel perfecutor; but it was suspected that he felt some little reluctance to that horrid bufinefs. But the Cardinal was liable to no fuch weakness. He was a cool, deliberate, unrelenting tyrant, who took a pride and pleasure in the most atrocious

acts of cruelty. To render him still more formi- Cent.XVI. dable, Pope Paul III. appointed him his legatus a latere in Scotland. Being now armed with all the powers he was capable of receiving, he made hafte to apply them to the purpose for which they were defigned; and he refolved to do this in a way that would ftrike those who knew they were fuspected or obnoxious with the greatest terror. In May, A. D. 1450., he went from Edinburgh to St. Andrew's with a more numerous and splendid retinue than any former primate, attended by the Archbishop of Glasgow. by five other bishops, by feveral abbots, priors, and principal clergymen; by the Earls of Arran, Huntley, Marshal, and Montrose; and by many other lords and gentlemen. To all the great men of the clergy and laity affembled in the cathedral May 28th, the Cardinal delivered an oration, in which he complained of the great increase of herefy in all parts of the kingdom, and even in the King's court; represented the fatal confequences with which this would be attended, and the necessity of inflicting the severest punishments on all who were found guilty of that greatest of all crimes. 161

The Cardinal having thus published his scheme for the extirpation of herefy, by burning all heretics, immediately proceeded to put it in execution. In the same assembly, Sir John Borthwick was accused of entertaining and propagating several heretical opinions, and dispersing heretical books. The heretical opinions of which he was

¹⁸¹ Buchan. lib. xiv. Spottiswoode, p. 69.

Cent. XVI. accused, were the same with those that were professed by the other reformers of those times, which are well known, and need not be here enumerated. Among the heretical books, for the dispersing of which he was accused, the New Testament in English was the first. Sir John, who was commonly called Captain Borthwick, had concealed himfelf fo carefully, that his enemies could not discover the place of his retreat; and has he did not appear in court to answer to the accufation brought against him, he was declared an obstinate heretic, and sentenced to be burnt as foon as he could be apprehended; and all perfons were prohibited to entertain him, under the pain of excommunication. He was burnt in effigy in St. Andrew's the fame day, and in Edinburgh about a week after. Thinking himfelf no longer fafe in Scotland, he made his escape into England, where he published a defence of the doctrines for which he had been condemned, in which he exposed the cruelty and other vices of the Cardinal and clergy of Scotland with great freedom 162. He was well received by Henry VIII., and employed his negotiations with the protestant princes of Germany.

Thomas Forrest.

The Cardinal was more fuccefsful in his next attempt to burnt heretics. Dean Thomas Forreft, canon of St. Columbs, and vicar of Dollar, preached every Sunday on the epiftle or gospel of the day; for which and some other singularities. he was accused of herefy to his ordinary George Crichton, Bishop of Dunkeld. The Bishop, when

the Dean appeared before him, addressed him in Cent.XVI. this manner: " My joy Dean Thomas, I am in-" formed that you preach the epiftle and gospel " every Sunday to your parishioners, and that " you do not take the best cow and the best cloth " from them, which is very prejudicial to other " churchmen; and therefore, my joy Dean Tho-"mas, I would you to take your cow and your " cloth as other churchmen do. It is too much "to preach every Sunday; for in fo doing you " may make the people think that we should preach " likewife: it is enough for you, when you find " any good epiftle, or good gospel, that fetteth " forth the liberties of holy church, to preach that, " and let the rest alone." To this fage admonition of his bishop, Dean Thomas made this answer: " I think, My Lord, that none of my parishioners " will complain that I do not take the cow and "the cloth; but I know that they will gladly " give me any thing that they have; and they "know that I will gladly give them any thing "that I have. There is no discord amongst us. "Your Lordship fayeth, it is too much to preach " every Sunday: I think it is too little; and I wish "that Your Lordship did the like." " Nay, nay, " Dean Thomas, (faid the Bishop,) we were not " ordained to preach." "Your Lordship (faid the "Dean) directs me, when I meet with a good " epiftle, or a good gospel, to preach upon it. I " have read both the Old and New Testament, " and I have never met with a bad epiftle, or a " bad gospel: but if Your Lordship will shew me " which are the good and which are the bad I ce will

Cent. XVI. " will preach on the good, and let the bad " alone." " I thank my God, (faid the Bishop,) " I know nothing of either the Old or New Tef-" tament; therefore, Dean Thomas, I will know " nothing but my portafs and my pontifical. Go " away, and lay afide all thefe fantafies, or you " will repent it when too late." Dean Thomas did not take the advice of his bishop, but continued to preach every Sunday. He was foon after brought before the Cardinal, together with two friars, Duncan Simpson a prieft, and Robert Foster a gentleman, in Stirling. They were all condemned as obstinate heretics, and burnt on the castle-hill of Edinburgh. 163

Lift of heretics.

All this was only a prelude to the horrors that were intended. A lift of three hundred and fixty perfons, who were to be tried for herefy, was found in the King's pocket after his death. In this lift were the names of about one hundred noblemen and gentlemen of fortune; and at the head of them, the Earl of Arran, prefumptive heir to the crown. But the troubles in which the kingdom was involved in the two last years of James V. prevented the execution of this execrable scheme. by which the clergy proposed to secure their own power and possessions, and enrich the crown, at the expence of fo much innocent blood. 164

Cardinal Beaton had gained fo great an afcendant over the mind of James V. that he devolved upon him the administration of all the affairs both in church and flate. This we learn from the Cardinal himself in his letters to the Pope, and his

¹⁶² Fox, p. 1153.

¹⁶⁴ Sadler's Letters, p. 101.

other friends at Rome, in which 'he acquaints Cent. XVI. them, that he was overwhelmed with bufiness: that the King had laid the whole weight of his government upon him alone, and would not fuffer him to depart from court one moment 165. These letters were dated May 4th, A. D. 1540. Great efforts were made by Henry VIII. to weaken the attachment of the infatuated prince to his dangerous favourite 166, but without effect. We may, therefore, without hefitation, ascribe all the calamities that befell the King and kingdom of Scotland in the last years of this reign, to the pernicious councils of Cardinal Beaton. The objects of these councils were - to keep King James at a distance from, and at variance with, his uncle the King of England, who courted his friendship with great earnestness; to extinguish that spirit of reformation that had spread from England into Scotland; and to preserve himself and the rest of the clergy from being deprived of their honours, their power, and their poffeffions. In pursuing these objects, he involved the nation in a war with England; the events of which proved fo difastrous, that they deprived the unhappy misguided King, first of his reason, and foon after of his life.

All these disasters did not discourage this bold and hardened politician. He attended the prince whom he had ruined, and distated a will for him in his last moments, when he was incapable of doing any deed that required the use of reason.

¹⁶⁵ Epistolæ Regum Scotorum, vol. ii. p. 66.

¹⁶⁶ See Sadler's Letters.

Cent. XVI. By that will a council of regency was appointed, confifting of himself, the Earls of Arran, Argyle, and Huntley. He brought this will from Faulkland to Edinburgh, where he proclaimed it at the market-cross, and immediately took the reins of government into his hands. 167

The Cardinal did not long retain his ill-gotten power. A convention met December 28th, A. D. 1542., only eight days after the King's death. In this convention no regard was paid to the pretended will, as the manner in which it had been fabricated was not unknown. The Cardinal, irritated at this, made a most violent declamation against appointing any fingle person, and particularly any of the name of Hamilton, regent. In this oration he gave the Hamiltons all the opprobrious names that language furnished. The Earl of Arran, who was prefumptive heir to the crown after the infant Queen and her iffue, stood up and faid: " My lords, call me what names you " please, but denyme not my right to the regency. " Whatever faults any of my name may have com-" mitted, none of you can fay I have done him " any injury. Neither am I minded to flatter " any of my friends in their evil doing; but by "God's grace shall be as forward to correct their " enormities, as any within the realm can rea-" fonably require me. Therefore yet again, my "lords, in God's name I crave, that ye do me "no wrong, nor defraud me of my just title, before you have experience of my govern-"ment." The whole affembly, the Cardinal

and a few of the clergy excepted, cried out, that Cent. XVI. the Earl of Arran's claim was most just, and could not be disputed. He was accordingly appointed guardian to the Queen, and governor of the kingdom, and invested with all the powers, prerogatives, and possessions of the crown 168. In a letter to the Pope, dated at Edinburgh May 14th, A.D. 1543., the Earl of Arran informed His Holines, that by his proximity of blood, and the law of nature, he had been raised to the regency, as well as by the assent of the people of Scotland 169. He was at the same time declared to be the second person in the kingdom, and next heir to the crown, after the infant Queen and her issue.

The Earl of Arran was very unfit for the station Two parto which he was raifed, and the difficult part he ties. had to act. Scotland was at this time divided into two parties, which might be called the French and the English parties. The first of these confifted of all the clergy, and fuch of the nobility, gentry, and commons as adhered to France and Rome, and were enemies to the Reformation and to England. This party had the ancient prejudices of the nation in their favour, and Cardinal Beaton at their head, than whom they could not have had a more able and artful leader. The other party confifted of all the nobles, gentlemen. and common people, who wished for the reformation of the church, and an intimate union with England by the marriage of the young Queen to the Prince of Wales. This party gained a great

168 Knox, p. 36.

¹⁶⁹ Epistolæ Regum Scotorum, vol. ii. p. 157.

Cent. XVI. accession of strength by the return of the Earl of Angus, and his brother Sir George Douglas, who had long been exiles; and of the Earls of Glencairn and Caffilis; the Lords Maxwell, Somerville, and Fleming; with feveral gentlemen, who had been prisoners in England. All these, gained by Henry, were fent into Scotland to promote his views. This party also derived great advantages from the vicinity, power, and wealth of England, and the extreme eagerness of Henry to accomplish the marriage. But the most powerful party, without a proper head, is a rope of fand. The Regent Arran was at the head of this party, and by his weak unfteady conduct ruined his party, brought difgrace upon himfelf, and many great calamities on his country. 170

> The imprisonment of the Cardinal, the arts by which he recovered his liberty, brought over the governor to his party, attained as great a degree of power as he had ever possessed, and defeated all the schemes of Henry VIII., have been already related 171. We shall now therefore confine our attention to the events which have an immediate relation to religion.

> As foon as the Cardinal had recovered his former power, he discovered that his pride, ambition, and cruelty were not in the least diminished. The great seal was taken from the Archbishop of Glasgow, and delivered in full parliament December 15th, A.D. 1543., to the Cardinal 172. The same

¹⁷⁰ See Sadler's Letters.

¹⁷¹ See ch. i. fect. 2. towards the end.

¹⁷² Regist. Parl. f. 123.

day the governor, who had abandoned his prin- Cent. XVI. ciples as well as his party, and was entirely under the direction of the Cardinal, complained in parliament of the great increase of herefy in all parts of the kingdom, when an act was made for its extirpation, commanding all bishops and their officials to apprehend and bring to trial all who were suspected of herefy, and promising them the fupport and fecular arm in that pious work. 173

This act was not fuffered to lie long dormant. Perfecu-In January, A.D. 1544., the Cardinal vifited tion. fome parts of his province in great state accompanied by the governor, the Earl of Argyle, justice-general, three bishops and feveral other lords and gentlemen. Many persons suspected of herefy had been imprisoned in Perth, and were now tried and found guilty. Some of them were banished, five men were hanged, and one woman was drowned 174. These five men and the woman were respectable burgesses of Perth, and much beloved by their neighbours, who earnestly interceded with the governor and Cardinal to spare their lives. The governor, it is faid, would willingly have granted the request; but the Cardinal, who ruled all, was inflexible. This interceffion, however, was probably the cause that they were not committed to the flames, the usual punishment of heretics.

The governor and Cardinal were prevented from proceeding in their progrefs for the extirpation of herefy, by receiving intelligence of the great preparations that were making in England

Cent. XVI. for a formidable invalion of Scotland in the fpring. That invafion took place in the begining of May this year 1544., and was most ruinous to the capital of Scotland, and the country between that and Berwick. The war between the two nations being thus kindled, it continued to rage with great violence all this and a great part of the next year; during which time the preachers and professors of the new learning met with little or no moleftation, and the number of both greatly increased.

The first preachers of the doctrines of the Reformation in Scotland, two or three excepted, were more eminent for their zeal and piety, than for their learning. But one no less fincere and pious than his predeceffors, but more diftinguished for his abilities and learning, made his appearance in this interval. This was the famous Mr. George Wishart, a fon of the family of Pitarrow in the Merns. Having paffed through a courfe of education in his native country, he studied some time at Cambridge, and vifited feveral countries on the continent for his further improvement. When he was in Germany, he became acquainted with the doctrines of the reformed, which he studied most carefully, and embraced most cordially. He then refolved to return home, to communicate to his countrymen the knowledge he had obtained. Paffing through England, he arrived in Scotland A.D. 1544.; and having vifited his family he immediately began to preach with the most undaunted boldness against the corruptions of the church, and the vices of the clergy. He met with a most

favour-

favourable reception wherever he appeared, par. Cent. XVI. ticularly in Dundee, where he resided a considerable time, and preached in the principal church to crowded audiences, till he was prohibited by the magistrates, at the command of the Cardinal. He then vifited Montrofe, Perth, and feveral other towns in those parts, preaching every where to admiring multitudes, who were equally charmed with the novelty of his doctrine, and manner of preaching. Being invited into the west, where the Reformation had made the greatest progress, he preached at the market cross in the town of Ayr, to a prodigious crowd of people, while the Archbishop of Glasgow preached in the church to a few old women. In a word, the ftrength of his arguments convinced the more intelligent of the truth of his doctrines, while those who were not capable of judging of his arguments, were greatly affected by the eloquence, warmth, and fervour of his discourses. His converts were almost innumerable; and among these were not a few of the nobility and principal gentlemen of the kingdom. 175

The Cardinal, and the clergy in general, were greatly incensed against this bold and dangerous adversary; and a resolution was formed to put an end to his attacks upon the church, by taking away his life by some means or other. Two attempts were made to cut him off by assassination; but he deseated the first by his courage, and the second by his caution. On the first of these

²⁷⁵ Knox, p. 48, &c. Edit. 1644. Spottifwoode, p. 76, &c. Buchan. lib. xv.

Cent. XVI. attempts he behaved in fuch a noble and generous manner as should have softened the hearts of his enemies, if that had been possible. A friar named Weighton, who had undertaken to kill him when he was in Dundee, knowing that it was his custom to remain in the pulpit after fermon till the church was empty, skulked at the bottom of the stairs with a dagger in his right hand under his gown. Mr. Wifhart, (who was remarkably quick-fighted,) as he came down from the pulpit, observing the friar's countenance, and his hand with fomething in it under his gown, suspected his defign, fprung forward, feized his hand, and wrenched the dagger from him. At the noise which this fcuffle occasioned, a crowd of people rushed into the church, and would have torn the friar in pieces; but Mr. Wishart clasped him in his arms, and declared that none should touch him but through his body. "He hath done me on hurt, (faid he,) my friends; he hath done me " much good; he hath taught me what I have to " fear, and put me upon my guard." With thefe and other speeches he appealed the people, and fent home the affaffin in fafety 176. If he discovered much courage and presence of mind on this occasion, he discovered no less caution and fagacity on the next. When he was at Montrofe, a messenger came to him with a letter from the laird of Kineer, acquainting him that he had been fuddenly taken ill, and earnestly intreating him to come to him without delay. He immediately fet out, accompanied by two or three friends; but

when they were about half a mile from the town, Cent. XVI. he stopped, faying, "I suspect there is treason " in this matter. Go you (faid he to one of his " friends) up yonder, and tell me what you ob-" ferve." He came back and told him, that he had feen a company of spearmen lying in ambush near the road. They then returned to the town. and on the way he faid to his friends: "I know " I shall one day fall by the hands of that blood-"thirsty man (meaning the Cardinal); but I " trust it shall not be in this manner." 177

These two plots having miscarried, and Mr. Synod. Wishart still continuing to preach with his usual boldness and fuccess, the Cardinal summoned a fynod of the clergy, to meet January 11th, A.D. 1546., in the blackfriars church Edinburgh, to confider what was proper to be done to put a stop to the progress of herefy, and to that torrent of defection from the church that threatened her ruin. Some proposals were made for reforming the lives of the clergy, and obliging them to be more diligent in the duties of their office, particularly in preaching; but nothing was determined.

When the Cardinal was thus employed, he re- Mr. Wiceived information that the great enemy of the fart apchurch, Mr. George Wishart, was in the house of Ormiston, only about eight miles from Edinburgh. He did not neglect this information, but immediately applied to the governor, and with fome difficulty, it is faid, procured a fufficient force, with which he fet out in the night, and arrived at Elphinston, about a mile from Ormif-

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Cent. XVI. ton. Here the Cardinal halted, and fent the Earl of Bothwell with a party of armed men to Ormiston to seize Mr. Wishart. Having furrounded the house that none might escape, they awaked the family, and demanded admittance. This Mr. Cockburn, the owner of the house, at first refused; but finding it in vain to resist, the Earl and a few of his followers were admitted. After some expostulations, the Earl of Bothwell gave a promife, confirmed by an oath, that he would protect Mr. Wishart from the malice of the Cardinal, and procure him a fair trial, or would fet him at liberty. On this fecurity, Mr. Wishart was produced and put into his hands. 178

Delivered to the governor.

. The Earl carried his prisoner to his own castle of Hails, and feemed at first to have some intention to perform his promife. But if he ever had fuch an intention, it was foon shaken, by the perfuafion, it is faid, of the Queen-dowager, with whom he was in love. To give him an excuse for violating his oath and promife, he was brought before the governor and council January 19th, and commanded, under the highest penalties, to deliver his prisoner to the governor before the end of that month. He complied with that command, and conducted Mr. Wishart to the castle of Edinburgh, from whence he was foon after carried to the castle of St. Andrew's.

Governor refuses to attend his trial.

The Cardinal having got this capital enemy of the church into his hands, loaded him with irons, and resolved that he should not escape. He summoned an affembly of the bishops and principal

clergy to meet at St. Andrew's, February 17th, Cent. XVI. for his trial, and invited the governor to be prefent on that occasion. With this invitation the obsequious governor would have complied, if he had not been diffuaded by his friends, particularly David Hamilton of Preston, a wife and good man, who convinced him by many arguments of the folly of drawing upon himfelf the guilt and odium that would attend the condemnation and execution of a man fo innocent and fo much admired. He wrote therefore to the Cardinal, that he could not come to St. Andrew's at the time proposed, and defired him to delay Mr. Wishart's trial to a more convenient feafon. The haughty prelate stormed at this refusal, returned an infulting answer to the governor, and determined to proceed without delay.179

A convocation of the prelates and clergy af Execution fembled in great state in the cathedral, March 1st, of Mr. for the trial of Mr. Wishart, who was brought to the place prepared for him by a guard of a hundred armed men. In this pretended trial, all the rules of law, justice, equity, and even decency, were most grossly violated; the prisoner was loaded with the opprobrious names of heretic, runnagate, thief, traitor, &c. at the reading of each of the eighteen articles of the charge against him, which he bore with inimitable patience. When he attempted to answer these articles, he was filenced when he had only uttered a few fentences. But these sentences were directly to the point, and really unanswerable.

Cent. XVI. He earnestly begged leave to explain the doctrines he had preached, and to shew their conformity to the word of God; but this was denied. him. After some hours were spent in insulting rather than trying the prisoner, the predetermined fentence was pronounced, condemning him to be burnt as an obstinate heretic 180. This cruel fentence was executed the next day on the green before the caftle. Thus perished Mr. George Wishart, one of the most pious and learned of the first preachers of the doctrines of the reformers in Scotland. His death was a lofs to his perfecutors, as well as to his friends. If he had lived a few years longer, the Reformation, it is probable, would have been carried on with more regularity and less devastation. He had acquired an aftonishing power over the minds of the people; and he always employed it in reftraining them from acts of violence, inspiring them with love to one another, and with gentleness and humanity to their enemies.

Exultation of the clergy.

The exultation of the clergy at the execution of Mr. Wishart, was excessive, and they loaded the Cardinal with praises as the most glorious champion of the church. They now imagined that they would enjoy their power, their honours, and riches, in tranquillity, and that none would dare to open their mouths against the church or clergy. But in this they were mistaken. The death of Mr. Wishart made a very different impression on the minds of the people in general; it excited their compassion for the meek and patient fufferer, and their

indignation against the authors of his suffer-cent.xvi.

appeared.

The Cardinal was not a little elated with this Marriage. bold atchievement, the praifes he received, and the advantages he expected to derive from it. Soon after, he fpent some time at Finhaven in Angus, the Earl of Crawford's feat, in settling the preliminaries of a marriage between that Earl's eldest son, and one of his natural daughters, named Margaret, with whom he gave a very great fortune; and in celebrating that marriage. When the settivities on that occasion were ended, he returned to his castle of St. Andrew's, where a great number of artificers of different kinds were employed in adding to its beauty, conveniency, and strength.

The Cardinal had many enemies, some on a civil or political, and others on a religious account; and the late execution of Mr. Wishart had greatly increased their number and inflamed. their anger. John Lesly, brother to the Earl of Rothes, had been long at variance with him; and Norman Lefly, that Earl's eldeft fon, had lately quarrelled with him for denying him an estate, to which he thought he had a claim. Thefe two, by often conversing together, heated one another, till at length they refolved to put him to death. They admitted into their fecret and fociety William Kirkcaldy of Grange, (who was incenfed against the Cardinal for depriving his father of the treasurer's office,) Peter Carmichael, and James Melville, who were zealous promoters of the Reformation, and admirers of Mr. Wishart.

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Cent. XVI. These five, after several consultations, determined to deftroy the object of their refentment in his own caftle. In order to this, they agreed to meet at St. Andrew's, in the evening of May 28th, with a few of their followers, on whose fecrecy and courage they could rely. They met accordingly; and having fettled their plan of proceeding that evening, they affembled next morning early, in number only fixteen, in the church-yard of the cathedral, near the castle, and waited till the gates were opened, and the draw-bridge down. Kirkcaldy of Grange, with other fix of his accomplices, then walked down to the gate, were admitted without fuspicion, and entered into conversation with the porter, asking him, when they would have an opportunity of waiting on the Cardinal; and other questions. By and by Norman Lefly, with three or four others, came and joined the company. At last John Lesly, with the rest of the conspirators, approached. When the porter faw John Lefly, knowing him to be an enemy to his mafter, he began to fufpect fome ill defign, and attempted to draw up the bridge: but those who were already admitted feized him, took all his keys from him, and threw him into the ditch. Being now mafters of the castle, they placed four of their number near the Cardinal's chamber, to prevent his receiving any intelligence. They then turned out at the postern, about one hundred artificers and labourers, and about fifty of the household, retaining onlythegovernor's eldest fon as a hostage. All this was done without any refistance, and with fo little noise, that the Cardinal was not alarmed Cent. XVI. till they knocked at the door of his chamber. Being asked who was there? they answered, a Lefly. Knowing the voice of his enemy John Lefly, he apprehended his danger, and, with the affiftance of his chamberlain, barricaded the door, which was very ftrong. After some unfuccessful attempts to break it open, they brought a grate with live coals, and threatened to fet it on fire. The door was then opened, most probably by the chamberlain, and they rushed in with their fwords drawn. They found the Cardinal feated in an elbow chair, who cried, "I " am a prieft, I am a prieft; you will not kill " me!" After a short and angry exposulation they dispatched him with many wounds. His last words were, "Fy! fy! all is loft, all is loft!" 181

Thus fell, in his fifty-second year, Cardinal Beaton, the most opulent and powerful churchman that ever was in Scotland. That he was a man of great abilities his history proves, and his enemies did not deny; but his virtues were not equal to his abilities. The general tenor of his life was very unsuitable to his profession and his vows. He had many natural children whom he publicly acknowledged, and on whom he bestowed considerable fortunes. He was a most consummate dissembler. It cost him nothing to make the strongest professions of love to those he hated, of esteem to those he despised, and of friendship to those hedesigned to ruin. His political schemes were deep and artful, but indirect and crooked,

Cent. XVI. carried into execution by deception and fraud, when he had not power to employ force. He was proud and ambitious, cruel and unrelenting, especially to those who were zealous for the reformation of the church, which he knew would endanger his own greatness, and the power and possessions of the clergy. His death made a mighty noise, and produced very important confequences. opening the best of the second

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BOOK VI.

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CHAPTER III.

History of the Constitution, Government, and Laws of Great Britain, from A.D. 1485. to A. D. 1547.

S the civil, military, and ecclefiaftical hiftory of Britain in this bufy period, hath unavoidably fwelled to an uncommon fize, it is neceffary to compress the materials of the following chapters of this book, by expressing every thing in as few words as possible.

The constitution of Great Britain, the envy Changes in the conand admiration of furrounding nations, hath flitution. been the work of ages; in the course of which it hath been exposed to various dangers, and undergone various changes, before it reached that

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degree

degree of excellence, precision, and stability, to which it hath now attained. Many of these changes have been related in the third chapters of the former books of this work; and such of the changes in the government and laws of England in the present period, as seem to merit a place in general history, will be related in the first section; and those in the government and laws of Scotland, in the second section of this chapter.

SECTION I.

History of the Constitution, Government, and Laws of England, from A.D. 1485. to A.D. 1547.

Nobility.

THE people of England were arranged in the fame ranks and orders in fociety in this as in the former period; but a very confiderable change was now made in the numbers and circumstances of the people in some of those ranks, particularly the highest and lowest.

So many noblemen had been killed, executed, and attainted, in the cruel contest between the houses of York and Lancaster, that only twenty-eight temporal peers were summoned to the first parliament of Henry VII. 182: a very small number in so great a kingdom. This diminution of the number of peers diminished their weight in the scale of government; and as that was one object of the policy of Henry VII. he raised very few to the peerage. Only thirty-six temporal peers were summoned to the first parliament of

Henry VIII. 183 Though that prince was more profuse of his money, he was no less frugal of his honours than his father, and no more than fortyfeven peers were fummoned to the first parliament of his fon Edward VI. 184 Some other things contributed to diminish the power and influence of the peerage in this period: the facility of alienating their eftates; the strict execution of the laws against retaining great numbers of idle people in their fervice, by giving them liveries; and by that splendid expensive mode of living introduced in the reign of Henry VIII. In a word, the baronage of England was no longer that too powerful preponderating body they had long been; equally formidable to their fovereigns and their fellow-fubjects.

The numbers of the people in the lowest rank in society, that of slaves, were also greatly diminished in this period. Sir Thomas Smith, who slourished in those times, and was secretary of state to Edward VI., in his Treatise on the Republic of England, mentions two kinds of slaves, viz. villains in gross, the absolute property of their masters and their heirs; and villains regardant, who were annexed to a particular estate, and transferred with it from one proprietor to another. "Nei-" ther of the one fort nor of the other," says he, have we any number in England; and of the first I never knew any in the realm in my time: of the second so few there be, that it is not almost worth the speaking about. But law

Dugdale's Summons to Parl. p.486. 184 Ibid. p. 509.

L. 2 " doth

66 doth acknowledge them in both these kinds 185." That is, no law had been made for abolifhing these kinds of flavery. Other causes had produced that effect. Several causes of the gradual decline of flavery in England have been already mentioned 186. Another cause now contributed to produce that effect. It came to be a prevailing opinion among people of all ranks, that flavery was inconfiftent with the spirit of Christianity and the rights of humanity, offenfive to God, and injurious to man. Wickliff and his followers inculcated this doctrine with great warmth, and their declamations had a great effect. Henry VIII. granted a manumission A. D. 1514., to two of his flaves and their families; for which he affigned this reason in the preamble: "That God had at "first created all men equally free by nature, "but that many had been reduced to flavery by the laws of men. We believe it therefore to be " a pious act, and meritorious in the fight of God, " to fet certain of our flaves at liberty from their 66 bondage 187." As these sentiments prevailed, flavery declined, and was at length extinguished, without any positive law. An attempt was made to procure a law for the general manumiffion of the bondmen in England; and a bill for that purpose was brought into the house of lords A.D. 1526., read three times in one day and rejected. But what could not be effected at once by a law, was gradually accomplished by humanity.188

¹⁸⁵ Smith's Republic, p. 160.

¹⁸⁷ Rym. tom. xiii. p. 470.

¹⁸⁶ See vol. v. p. 359.

Journals, vol.i. p.99.

A new race of people, differing in their origin, Egyptians. complexion, language, and manners, from the other inhabitants, appeared in England about this time, and foon became fo numerous, and committed fo many crimes, that a law was made 22 Henry VIII. for their expulsion. These people were called Gypfies or Egyptians; because they faid, and it was generally believed, that they came originally from Egypt. The characters and practices of these remarkable wanderers are thus described in the preamble to the act of parliament for their expulsion: "Forasmuch as " before this time divers and many outlandish " people, calling themselves Egyptians, using no " craft nor feat of merchandife, have come into "this realm, and gone from thire to thire, and " place to place in great company, and used "great, fubtile, and crafty means to deceive the "people; bearing them in hand, that by pal-" miftry they could tell men's and women's for-" tunes; and fo many times by craft and fubtilty " have deceived the people of their money, and " also have committed many heinous felonies and " robberies, to the great hurt and deceit of the " people that they have come among 189." For these reasons the parliament enacted, that no more Egyptians should be admitted into the realm; and that if any of them landed, they should be immediately seized and commanded to depart. It was further enacted, That a proclamation should be published, commanding all the Egyptians in England to banish themselves

out of the kingdom in fixteen days, under the penalty of imprisonment and the confiscation of their goods. But neither this law, nor feveral fubfequent laws still more fevere, produced the defired effect. Many thousands of those pernicious inmates remained in England long after this time; and confiderable numbers of their posterity are still remaining.

Parliament.

So full an account hath been given of the conflitution, powers, privileges, forms of proceeding, and other circumstances, of the two houses of parliament, in the third chapter of the fifth book of this work, that it will not be necessary to fay much on these subjects in this chapter 190. The changes that took place in parliament in this period were not many, and few of them were of great importance.

House of lords.

For feveral centuries the spiritual peers had been more in number than the temporal peers in the house of lords. But a great revolution happened in that particular in this period. By the diffolution of the monasteries and other religious houses, more than one half of the spiritual peers were cut off from the house of lords at one blow. No fewer than twenty-fix parliamentary abbots and two parliamentary priors loft their baronies and their feats in the house of lords at the fame time. When the parliament met after this great revolution, April 13th, 1539., the house of peers made a very different appearance from what it had done on all former occasions, from the time that the parliament had been divided into two houses.

one temporal, and only twenty spiritual peers were present in that session 191. This revolution was very favourable to the cause, and had been promoted by the friends, of the Reformation: but it was fatal to the cause of popery, which thereby lost a great number of its strongest pillars, and soon fell to the ground.

are now confidering; at least some forms were liament. then used which have long fince been discontinued, which were very different from those that are now established. At the opening of every parliament the King was prefent, feated on his throne, but made no fpeech to the two houses. The speech was made by the Lord Chancellor; and as the chancellors in those times were generally prelates, those speeches were a kind of fermons on a text of fcripture, and abounded in the most fulsome flattery of His Majesty, whose glorious perfections the humble prelate acknowledged himfelf incapable of describing. The Chancellor then named feveral committees, confifting of lords and commons, for the quicker dispatch of business; viz. one committee for receiving petitions from England, Ireland, Wales,

The forms of conducting business in parlia- Forms of ment were not very firmly fixed, in the times we proceedings in parl are now considering; at least some forms were liament.

Gascony, and the continent. This was a very

191 Journals, vol. i. p. 129.

and Scotland; another for receiving petitions from Gascony, and the English territories on the continent: one committee for trying the petitions from England, Ireland, Wales, and Scotland; and another for trying the petitions from

ancient form; but in those times it was far from being a mere unmeaning form, as it is at prefent. The triers of petitions had a great deal of power, and did a great deal of bufinefs. In particular, they had the fame dangerous power with the lords of the articles in the parliament of Scotland, to felect fuch petitions as they thought worthy of the attention of parliament, to form them into bills to be laid before the houses, and to reject others. This gave the King and his ministers a great advantage; as it put it intotheir power to prevent any thing that was difagreeable to them from being introduced into parliament, except incidentally by the members in their speeches 192. The forms of reading and passing bills were in some respects different from what they are at prefent. Bills were prepared and brought into the house by the triers of petitions, written upon paper, and after a first and fecond reading, were commonly delivered to the King's attorney and folicitor, to be examined, corrected, and put into legal parliamentary form 193. No certain number of times was fixed for reading bills before they were passed. In the Journals of the house of lords we find some bills were passed on the first reading, with the unanimous consent of all the members, and that others were twice read on one day, passed, and sent to the commons 194. Many were paffed on the third reading, but some were read four times, some five times, some fix times, fome feven times, and fome even eight times 195.

¹⁹² Journals, passim.

¹⁹⁴ Ibid. p. 125.

¹⁹³ Ibid. p. 11. & paffim.

¹⁹⁵ Ibid. p. 26. 49. 52. 55, 56.

It feems to have been the intention of parliament in those times to pass those bills immediately on the first or second reading on which all were agreed; and to read those bills on which different opinions were entertained, till all, or a great majority of the members, came to be of the same fentiments. This, however, is only a conjecture, and may be a mistake. Several other peculiarities in the modes of conducting bufiness in parliament might be collected from the Journals of the house of lords, if it were necessary.

The fessions of parliament in this period were feldom longer than five or fix weeks, fometimes much shorter; but in these short sessions, both houses applied to business with great assiduity. They had often two meetings in the day; one at eight or nine o'clock in the morning, after breakfast; the other at two o'clock in the afternoon, after dinner 196. Great pains were taken to fecure a full attendance of all the members at every meeting. None could be abfent without leave from the King, and without naming one or two who were present as proxies, to act in his name. Such as were absent without leave, and without proxies, were liable to a heavy fine. The names of all the members prefent at every -meeting are carefully marked in the Journals, and from thence we find that there was constantly a very full attendance. 197

Some of the parliaments of this period were of Long parlonger duration, and had a greater number of fef- liaments. fions, than those of former times. The parliament

that met at Westminster 21 Henry VIII. November 3d, A. D. 1529., had feven fessions, each of them uncommonly long and full of bufiness, and was not diffolved till April 4th, A. D. 1535., after having continued fix years and four months. 198

Unanimity in parliament.

Though many of the laws that were made by the parliament of England in the reign of Henry VIII.; as the laws for abolishing the power of the Pope: for investing the King, a layman, with the fupremacy of the church; and for the diffolution of religious houses, could not but be very difagreeable to many of the members, and particularly to the spiritual peers in the house of lords; it is aftonishing how little opposition they encountered, and with what facility and rapidity they passed through both houses. The bill empowering the King, as supreme head of the church, to conflitute bishops by his own authority, was brought into the house of lords, read three times. passed, sent to the commons, read three times by them, passed, and returned to the lords all in the fame day 199. At the end of the third and last fession of that parliament, which finished the disfolution of the monastic orders, granted their houses, lands, and goods to the King, and made many other fevere laws against the Pope and church of Rome, it is recorded in the Journals, "That the lords gave their fuffrages and deli-" vered their fentiments concerning all thefe " acts; and fuch was their unanimity, that there " was no difference of opinion about any one " of them 200." So great an ascendant had this

¹⁹⁸ Stat. 21 Hen, VIII.

¹⁹⁹ Journals, p. 112.

²⁰⁰ Ibid. p. 163.

awful prince gained over the minds of his greatest subjects. We meet with no protests or dissents in the Journals of the house of lords in this reign. That was a measure too dangerous to be attempted. So great was the authority, and so dreadful the displeasure of this prince, that the boldest of his subjects trembled at the thoughts of opposition.

The forms of electing the members of the house of commons, and the laws for preventing undue elections and false returns, were the same in this as in the former period. Great pains were taken to fecure the conftant attendance of all the members from the beginning to the end of every fession. At the beginning of a parliament a lift of the members returned was made out and called over at the first meeting, and all who were not prefent to answer to their names were fined. A very diffinct account is preferved in the Journals of the house of lords, of the opening of the parliament that met at Westminster on Monday January 16th, A. D. 1542. On that day the Duke of Suffolk, attended by many other lords in their robes, came into the parliament chamber, and commanded the clerk of the parliament to call the names of all the knights, citizens, and burgeffes, who were flanding without the bar, and every one answered to his name. The Duke and the other lords then took their feats, waiting for the entry of the King, the commons still standing without the bar 201. No less care was taken to fecure the attendance of all the members to the end, than their appearance at the beginning, of every

fession. By an act of parliament, A. D. 1541., it was declared, that if any member left the house without the leave of the speaker before the end of the fession, he should have no claim for wages from his conftituents. 202

Though both houses of the parliament of England in this period on many occasions acted a very mean part, and shamefully facrificed their own undoubted rights and liberties, and those of the people, by complying with the imperious mandates and impetuous passions of their sovereigns and their ministers, there is sufficient evidence that the commons now began to acquire a greater degree of weight in the scale of government, than they had formerly poffesfed or exercifed. Of this it would be eafy to produce many proofs, but a few will be fufficient.

We have already feen, that in former periods the commons did not take the lead in granting supplies to the crown, but contented themselves with granting their own fupplies and those of their constituents, while the peers in the house of lords, and the clergy in convocation, granted each their own aids, fometimes of a different kind from those granted by the commons 203. It plainly appears, however, that greater attention was now paid to the commons in this important business, and that their affent was necessary to every grant, though some of the money-bills still originated in the house of lords. Of this it will be proper to give one example out of feveral that might be given. A bill

was brought into the house of lords February 22d. A. D. 1515, for granting the King tonnage and poundage during his life, was read a first time, and delivered to the King's attorney to be written out fair. It was read a fecond time on Friday the 23d, a third time on Monday the 26th, a fourth time on Tuesday the 27th, and passed. It was fent with eight other bills to the house of commons March 10th, where it was passed and returned to the lords March 28th 204. On fome occasions, when the King, by his ministers, had applied first to the lords for a supply, and they had agreed to grant it; instead of bringing in a bill for that purpose, they appointed a committee of the principal lords in their house to wait upon the commons, to communicate to them the requisition and the consent of the lords, and to request them to take that business into their confideration, and then retire 205. This was a degree of attention and respect that had not been paid to the commons in any former period. fleadiness with which the commons sometimes declined complying with the King's demands. enforced by the confent of the lords, and the most earnest folicitations of the great Cardinal Wolfey in the zenith of his power, is another proof of the rifing spirit of the house of commons 206. Both the King and the Cardinal were fo much difgusted with the opposition they met with in the house of commons to their exorbitant demands, that they formed the resolution of ruling without par-

²⁰⁴ Journals, p. 25, 26. 31. 38.

²⁰⁵ Parl, Hift. vol. iii. p. 86.

liaments; to which they adhered almost feven years, and from which they did not depart till they had exhaufted all the illegal arts of extorting money. Some of these arts were such, that if they had been fuccessful they would have put an end to parliaments, and to all the rights and liberties of the people of England. Commissions were fent into every county in England, A. D. 1525., empowering and commanding the commissioners to levy from the laity the fixth, and from the clergy the fourth part of their goods. But these commissions excited such an universal alarm, and threatened fo great a storm, that the King thought proper to difavow and recal them by proclamation. 207

In former periods, it hath been observed that when the privileges of the commons were invaded, they applied to the King or to the house of lords for redress 208: but in this period they took the protection of their privileges, and the punishment of those who invaded them, into their own hands; which is another proof of their increasing power and confequence. A remarkable example of this occurred in the parliament that metat Westminster 16th January, A. D. 1543 .: George Ferrers, member for Plymouth, was arrested for debt, and imprisoned in the Counter, Bread-street; of which the speaker having acquainted the house, they sent their ferjeant to demand the prisoner. But the clerks of the Counter were fo far from complying with this demand, that they gave him very ill language, broke his mace, and knocked down his

^{1 207} Herbert, p. 66.

fervant. In the midft of this scuffle the two sheriffs of Londonarrived, to whom the ferjeant applied; but they treated him with great contempt, and refused to deliver the prisoner. On his return to Westminster, his relation of the treatment he had received threw the house into a violent ferment. They declared unanimously, that they would do no bufiness till they had recovered their member; went in a body to the house of lords, (according to an established custom of the two houses, communicating to each other any extraordinary emergency,) and by their speaker represented the indignity that had been offered them. The lords, after a short deliberation, replied by the chancellor, that the indignity was very great, but referred the redress of it, and the punishment of the offenders, entirely to the commons. The chancellor, at the fame time, offered them his warrant for the liberation of their member, which they refused. The commons, on their return to their own house, sent their ferjeant with his maceagain, to demand their member. It being now known to the sheriffs how much their late treatment of the ferjeant had been refented, they received him with the greatest refpect, and immediately fet the prisoner at liberty. But the ferjeant, agreeably to the orders he had received, summoned the two sheriffs to appear at the bar of the house of commons next morning at eight o'clock, and to bring with them all who had been concerned in the late riot, and one Mr. White, at whose suit the member had been arrefted. They appeared accordingly, and after a severe reprimand from the speaker, the two theriffs,

theriffs, with White the profecutor, were committed to the Tower, and three of their officers to Newgate; but on a petition from the lord mayor of London, they were liberated in a few days 2009. This fpirited conduct of the commons was applauded by the King.

Servility of parliament.

But though it is certain that the house of commons acquired additional power and influence in the course of this period, it is no less certain, that both the houses of the parliament of England, on many occasions, discovered a spirit of servile submission to the imperious mandates and impetuous passions of their fovereigns, particularly of Henry VIII.; very dishonourable to themselves, and very pernicious to their country. Nothing but a fervile unmanly dread of the frowns of royalty (which were indeed very terrible) could have induced them to give their affent to the many unconflitutional, unjust, absurd, contradictory, oppressive, and cruel laws that were enacted in the reign of that stern imperious tyrant. That many laws were made in that reign which merited the above epithets is undeniable. Could any thing be more subversive of the constitution than the law which gave royal proclamations the fame authority with acts of parliament 210? What could be more contrary to the plainest principles of justice and common honesty, than the law which absolved the King from the obligation of paying his debts, for which he had given fecurity under his privy feal, and even obliged

210 Stat. 31 Hen. VIII.

Hollingshead, p. 955. Miscellania Parliamentaria, p. 1-10.

those who had received payment to refund the money they had received 211? How abfurd and indelicate was that law which enacted, " That if " the King or his fucceffors should intend to " marry any woman whom they took to be a pure " and clean maid, if she, not being so, did not " declare the fame to the King, it should be high " treason, and all who knew it and did not reveal " it were guilty of misprission of treason 212!" By act of parliament 28 Henry VIII., it was declared to be high treason to affert the validity of the King's marriage with his first Queen Catherine of Spain, or his fecond Queen Anne Boleyn: and whoever refused to answer upon oath to every thing contained in that act was declared to be a traitor 213. By another act, about feven years after, (which did not repeal but confirm the former act,) it was made treason to say any thing to the disparagement or slander of the Princess Mary or Elizabeth 214. How captious, contradictory, and cruel were these laws! If they had both been put in execution, any man in England might have been convicted of treason by the one or by the other. If he refused to answer upon oath, he was a traitor: If he afferted the validity of the King's marriages, or of one of them, he was a traitor by the first act: if he denied it, he disparaged the Princesses, or one of them, and was a traitor by the fecond. The truth feems to have been, that the fervile parliaments of those

Burnet, b. xi. Records. No. xxxi. Rolls of Parl. A. D. 1529.

212 Burnet, vol. i. p. 313.

22 Hen. VIII. c. 7.

^{414 35} Hen. VIII. c. 1.

times were in fuch hafte to gratify the prefent predominant passion of their imperious master, that they did not reflect on the abfurdity, cruelty, and inconfiftency of the acts they paffed, or on the fatal confequences which they might produce. Of this many other proofs, if it were necessary, might be adduced.

Great power of the crown.

When the opulence and power of the great barons (which had long formed a balance to the power of their fovereigns) were gradually declining, by the alienation of their lands and the loss of their retainers, and when the spirit of parliaments was finking into fervility, the power and prerogatives of the crown were gradually increafing in the same proportion, and at length threatened the destruction of the constitution, and the establishment of an absolute monarchy. The accession of Henry VII., however defective his right might be, was a very happy event. It put an end to a most destructive civil war, the horrors of which had made fo deep an impression on the minds of the people, that they feem to have been determined to fuffer and fubmit to any thing, rather than rekindle those flames which had threatened them with destruction. That artful prince availed himself of this disposition of the people, and obtained fuch a fettlement of the crown as he wished, and every thing he defired from parliament. His implacable hatred of the house of York and its partizans; his avarice, extortions, vexatious profecutions on antiquated penal statutes, and the general severity of his government, created him many enemies, encouraged pretenders to his throne, and procured them followers. But the great body of the nobility, gentry, and people, though fecretly difcontented, remained quiet; having the dreadful disasters of the late times fresh in their memories. The infurrections were foon suppressed, and served only to render the King more fecure and arbitrary.

Henry VIII. at his accession was in the bloom Attempts of youth, engaged in the most ardent pursuit of to ruin the constitupleasures and amusements of the most splendid tion. and expensive kind, by which he foon distipated the immense treasure accumulated by his parsimonious father; and thereby parted with one instrument of increasing his power, about which at that time he had no anxiety. He committed the management of affairs to his ministers, who facrificed Empfom and Dudley, the two hated instruments of his father's extortions, to the refentment of the people, which rendered the young monarch exceedingly popular. He still continued to purfue his oftentatious expensive pleafures with unremitting ardour, in which he was encouraged by his favourite Wolfey, who formed, and by his great abilities had nearly accomplished, the base design of rendering the King absolute, and the crown independent of the people, by imposing taxes without the confent of parliament. Loans had been often folicited and obtained, though the repayment of them was known to be very uncertain. Free gifts, called benevolences, had been frequently demanded, and by many granted, though with much reluctance. Both these methods of raising money were con-

trary to the fpirit of the constitution, and the last of them was contrary to an act of parliament; but as they did not avowedly extort money from the subjects without their own consent, they were by many complied with, and by all endured. But when Cardinal Wolfey proceeded to strike the last decisive blow for overturning the constitution, by sending commissioners into every county in England, A. D. 1526., to levy the fixth part of the goods of the laity, and the fourth part of the goods of the clergy, by the royal authority alone, the spirit of the nation was roused, and so great a ferment raised, that Henry sound it necessary to disavow his minister and recal his commissioners. 216

Great power of Henry VIII.

But though Henry was foiled in this attempt, he was not cured of his avarice and ambition. He still wished to have the money of his subjects at his command, and the power of ruling them as he pleased. To accomplish this in the latter half of his reign, he purfued a more indirect, but more infidious and more dangerous method, by managing parliaments, and making them subservient to his defigns against the rights and liberties of his fubjects. In this he was too fuccessful. The long parliament, and all the subsequent parliaments in his reign, were fo managed, that they denied him nothing. The methods of managing parliaments were no fecrets even in those times; and there was one circumstance that greatly facilitated their operation. After the disputes with Rome commenced, the nation was divided into two great

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parties; the partifans of the Pope, and the friends of the Reformation; and these parties, knowing the King's temper, engaged in a formal contest which should flatter him most, and comply with all his requisitions with the greatest alacrity, to gain him to their fide. This feems to be the reason that bills paffed both houses with little or no oppofition, that were exceedingly difagreeable to many, if not to a majority of the members. They dared not oppose with any vigour, for fear of irritating the furious monarch, and throwing him into the arms of the opposite party. It was not so much policy as his natural temper that made him, between these two parties, sometimes promote, and fometimes retard the Reformation. He was a papift, though he had quarrelled with the Pope. He hanged and beheaded those who acknowledged the papal authority, and burned those who denied the popish doctrines; and his obsequious parliaments gave their fanction to both. It was a parliament in which there were many, probably a majority, of zealous papifts, that abolished the Pope's authority in England; invefted the King with the title of supreme head of the church in his dominions; diffolved the religious houses, and granted all their goods to the crown 217. It was a parliament in which we know there were many members in both houses who had cordially embraced the principles of the Reformation, that made the cruel act of the Six Articles, which condemned to the flames all who had the courage to

²¹⁷ 23 Hen. VIII. Burnet, vol 1. p. 144. Parl. Hift. vol. iii. p. 144. M 3

avow and defend these principles; nor do we hear of any confiderable opposition that was made to that act, except by Archbishop Cranmer, and his opposition was considered as an extraordinary thing, and an act of the greatest heroism. Parliaments gave the force of laws to royal proclamations, and to fucceeding princes the power of repealing all laws made before they were twentyfour years of age 218. Parliaments gave the King authority to regulate the religious opinions his fubjects were to entertain, and the religious ceremonies they were to perform, and to change them as he pleafed by proclamation from time to time. They gave him even the extraordinary power of fettling the fuccession to the crown, by his letters patent or his last will 219. In a word, these parliaments complied with all Henry's caprices, followed him in all his turnings and windings, and enacted whatever he dictated with little hesitation. In these circumstances the constitution was on the brink of ruin, and England was in those times very nearly an absolute, with the outward forms of a limited monarchy.

Perversion of law.

We hear of no very remarkable change in the constitution of the courts at Westminster, or in the ordinary administration of the laws in this period, except when the fovereigns interfered. Then indeed the laws were bafely perverted, and the most shocking acts of oppression perpetrated, under the pretence of executing the laws and punishing offences. In the reign of Henry VII. these oppressions

extended only to the imprisonment of many of the fubjects on the most frivolous pretences, and detaining them in prison till they paid great compositions to obtain their liberty; to imposing exorbitant amerciament for fmall delinquencies; exacting enormous reliefs from the royal wards; demanding excessive sums for pardons, and a most rigorous execution of antiquated flatutes 220. By thefe and various other methods the laws were made the instruments of oppression, the subjects haraffed and plundered, and the King's coffers filled. In the reign of Henry VIII. (who was more jealous and vindictive than covetous) this perversion of law, and the forms of justice, took a more fatal turn, and deprived many persons of high rank, not only of their liberties, honours, and eftates, but also of their lives, on very defective evidence, and fometimes without any trial. On what flender evidence were the amiable Queen Anne Boleyn, and her accomplished brother Lord Rochford, found guilty of high treason, condemned, and executed? On what trivial pretences did the convocation pronounce a fentence of divorce between Henry and his Queen Anne of Cleves, which was confirmed by parliament? How many noble persons were found guilty of high treason, without any trial, by acts of attainder in parliament, though they were in custody and earnestly intreated to be tried before they were condemned? Was not this a gross violation of the first and plainest principles of law and justice? Who after this will hefitate to pronounce Henry VIII. a

²²⁰ Bacon, 629, 630. Hollingth, 504. Polyd. Virg. p. 613—615. M 4 tyrant,

tyrant and his parliaments the fervile executioners of his imperious and cruel mandates?

Government fanguinary.

The courts of some of the popish bishops of this period were scenes of great cruelty, in which many good and virtuous perfons of both fexes, and of all ages, were condemned to the flames, for reading the New Testament in English, or having it in their possession, or for any thing that indicated that they entertained opinions in religion different from the tenets of the church of Rome. But so much hath been said on this unpleafant subject in the second chapter of this book, that I shall here decline mentioning any particulars. Such readers as wish to be acquainted with those scenes of cruelty and horror, may confult the voluminous work quoted below 221. It is proper to conclude this fubject with observing that the executive government, both in church and flate, in the reign of Henry VIII. was exceedingly fanguinary. A prodigious number of people, no fewer it is faid than feventytwo thousand, were put to death as criminals in that reign. This account appears to be exaggerated, but the number was certainly very great.222

Revenues.

The ordinary stated revenues of the crown of England flowed from the same sources in this as in the three former periods, which need not be again described 223. Its extraordinary and less certain revenues were derived from parliamentary grants of tenths and fifteenths, from loans, benevolences, forfeitures, amerciaments, fines, &c.

²²² Hollingsh. p. 186. Fox's Martyrology.

²²³ See vol. vi. ch. 3. § 1. vol. x. p. 76-80.

That these revenues with good management, were fufficient to support the dignity of the crown, and defray all the expences of government, and even to yield a furplus, is evident from the great mass of money that was found in the coffers of Henry VII. at his death, amounting to 1,800,000l., equal, in the quantity and weight of the precious metals, to 2,700,000l., and in real value and efficacy to 8,000,000l. of our money at prefent. All that treasure, the ordinary and extraordinary revenues of the crown, the tenths and first fruits from the clergy, (which had been formerly paid to the Pope,) together with the inestimable spoils of all the religious houses in England, whose value almost exceeded the bounds of calculation, came into the possession of Henry VIII. For the management of this great influx of revenue feveral new courts were erected; as the court of augmentations, the court of furveyors of the King's lands, the court of first-fruits and tenths 224: and if they had been well managed they might have made the crown independent of the country, and enabled the King to have reigned for a long time without a parliament. But, fortunately for the people of England, Henry distipated all those treasures, died poor, and transmitted the crown to his fon and fucceffor, as dependent on the people for their supplies in parliament, as at any former period. The wanton, wasteful profusion of princes is always hurtful to themselves, but may accidentally, and in fome circumstances, prove beneficial to their fubjects, by preventing

²²⁴ Stat. 27 Hen. VIII. c. 27-33. c. 39-42. c. 46.

greater evils. If Henry had been more frugal, he would have been more dangerous.

SECTION II.

History of the Constitution, Government, and Laws of Scotland, from A. D. 1488. to A. D. 1542.

the period we are now confidering, was a fcene of great confusion, owing to the minorities of the kings, the factions of the nobles, and the wars with England, the cares of government and the execution of the laws were not neglected. On the contrary, greater attention was paid to those important objects, than could have been expected in such unhappy times. Many parliaments were held, in which a variety of wife regulations were made, for bringing criminals to justice, for preventing riots, tumults, and oppressions, and for promoting the peace and prosperity of the country.²²⁵

No remarkable change was made at this time in the ranks and orders of men in fociety. The great barons, by the extent of their eftates and the number of their followers, still maintained that superior instructed which they had long enjoyed, which they often employed for the protection and sometimes for the disturbance of their country, by their seuds and sactions. The clergy had great possessions and great power; they were in general good landlords, and did not oppress their tenants, by whom they were beloved. A

213 See Black Acts, James IV. and V.

few

few of them had fome learning and skill in business, which raised them to the highest offices in the flate; which, with their riches, their luxury, and their pride, excited the envy and hatred of the nobility. Their cruelty to the preachers and profesfors of the doctrines of the Reformation shocked the humanity of the people, who could not help pitying the fufferers and abhorring their perfecutors. Their enemies daily increased, and their friends diminished; and towards the end of this period the mine was dug, which was foon after fprung, and involved them in fudden and irreparable ruin. Merchants, artificers, and hufbandmen, when they were injured and oppressed by their too powerful neighbours, fought, and generally found redrefs and protection from the King's court, or from parliament, and it was against law to feek it from any other quarter. Several chieftains in Gallaway and Carrick had been accustomed to demand a certain annual payment, called caupis, from their poor neighbours for their protection. A complaint of this was brought before parliament, A. D. 1490., and an act was made prohibiting that demand 226. The tenants on the King's lands were by far the happiest, as they were exempted from many fervices to which others were fubjected. The lords and gentlemen in their neighbourhood observing this, were in use to demand, in an authoritative way, certain services from them; as carriages, shearing, ploughing, &c. Complaint of this was made to the fame parliament, and it was immediately

enacted, "That no lord, baron, or gentleman, " fhould compel any of the King's tenants to do " them any fervice by coaction or dread, under " the pain of being punished as oppressors of the "King's lieges227." Whoever will peruse the flatutes of this period, must perceive that many of them breathe a spirit of tenderness and humanity towards the common people, that do great honour to the legislators, and prove that they were not fuch fierce unfeeling barbarians as they have been fometimes represented. Upon the whole, there is fufficient evidence that the people of Scotland in those times, even in the lowest flations, were not fo forlorn and unprotected by government, nor government fo weak and unable to protect them, as hath been commonly imagined. James V. in particular, was a most strenuous protector of the poor from the oppressions of the rich and powerful, which procured him the honourable appellation of the poor man's king.

Authority of the laws.

The authority of the laws was not only extended in this period over all ranks of people, but to the most remote extremities of the kingdom, and to the northern and western islands, where laws had formerly been little known or regarded. In the preamble to an act of parliament, A.D. 1503., it is observed, "That there had been great abusion "[abuse] of justice in the north parts and west "parts of the realm; as the North Islesand South "Isles, for lack [want] of Justice-aires, justices, "and sheriffs, by which the people are almost be-

²²⁹ Black Acts, 2 James IV. c. 18.

" come wild 228." To remedy this great evil, the parliament established justices and sheriffs in Orkney, Caithness, Ross, and the Western Isles, where there had been none before; and appointed juftice-aires, or courts of justice, to be held at certain times and places in thoseremote countries 229, These new magistrates, it is probable, found no little difficulty in the execution of their offices. among a people unaccustomed to the restraints of law, and haughty chieftains who had formerly been the only judges. To give countenance to his officers, and procure reverence for the laws. James V., a prince of great activity, and zealous in the administration of justice, resolved to visit in person those less civilized parts of his dominions. He failed from Leith, A.D. 1535., with five flout ships, well-manned, attended by feveral of his chief nobility. It was given out that he was bound for France. But as foon as he was out of the Firth he changed his courfe, and failed along the east, north, and west coasts and islands, to Whithorn in Gallaway. In this voyage he frequently landed, inquired into the flate of the country, furprifed and feized feveral of the most turbulent chieftains, and fent them to different prisons, where they were detained till they found fecurity for their future good behaviour. By this expedition the King not only gained a more perfect knowledge of the country and its inhabitants, but struck such terror into the heads of the feveral clans, that they learned to respect

^{228 5} James IV. c. 93.

the laws, and remained quiet, it is faid, for many years. 230

Gypfies.

The number of those remarkable wanderers called Egyptians, or Gypfies, in Scotland at this time was very confiderable, and formed a kind of commonwealth, under a chief of their own nation, called John Faw, Lord and Earl of Little Egypt. The authority of this Egyptian chieftain over his fubjects was supported by government; and James V. published a proclamation, commanding all sheriffs and magistrates to lend him the use of their prisons and stocks whenever he demanded them. That prince also made an agreement or covenant in form with this Egyptian chief; who engaged on his part to carry all his fubjects out of Scotland, and conduct them home to their own country of Little Egypt; and the King engaged to furnish him with ships for that purpose. But the Earl was not able to fulfil his engagement. Many of his fubjects rebelled against him, under the conduct of one of them, named Sebastian Lalow. and refused to return home. This rebellion continued feveral years, as appears from another proclamation iffued A. D. 1553., by James Duke of Chatelrault, Earl of Arran, &c. Governor of Scotland; commanding all sheriffs, magistrates, and other officers, to affift John Faw, Earl of Little Egypt, in apprehending his rebellious fubjects, (many of whom are named in the proclamation,) and compelling them to obey and follow him into their own country231. Whether

this famous Gypfey, John Faw, was an impostor, or had really been the fovereign of a fmall territory in Egypt, as he pretended, I shall not determine; but his scheme of carrying all the Gypfies out of Scotland certainly miscarried.

We meet with no mention of flaves either in Slaves, &c. the histories or laws of Scotland in this period; which makes it probable that there were not many, if there were any, of that wretched degraded order of men in that kingdom at this time. Several fevere laws had been made in the preceding period for the punishment and suppresfion of those troublesome people called sorners and mafterful beggars; and it was found necessary to renew and enforce the laws in the reign of James V. A. D. 1535.232 A very wife regulation was made at the same time for supplying the wants of those who were really poor and unfit for labour. Every paparish was to support its own poor, who were to wear badges given them by the headsmen of the parish. 233

Such feems to have been the condition of the people in their feveral ranks, from the highest to the lowest, in the present period. A condition certainly not to be envied by us who live in happier times; but not so piteous and unhappy as it hath been fometimes represented. The high were not too high to be corrected, nor the low too low to be protected, by the laws.

Both James IV. and his fon James V. ruled much Parliaby parliaments, which they frequently called. James IV. called eight parliaments in twenty-one years, and these assemblies were no less frequentin

the fucceeding reign. In this thefe princes acted wifely. Their parliaments did them many good offices; and if we may judge by their acts they neither did, nor intended to do them any injuries by encroaching on their prerogatives or their revenues. The parliaments of Scotland, it is true, interfered in some things that are not commonly believed to belong to parliaments; fuch as the marriages of their kings, the appointing ambaffadors to foreign courts, and naming commiffioners for negociating truces and treaties of peace. But they did this only during the minorities, or at the defire of their kings; and they provided for defraying all the expences incurred on these occafions. So full a description hath been already given of the constitution, forms of proceeding, and other circumstances of the parliaments of Scotland in the third chapter of the fifth book of this work, that it is sufficient to refer the reader to that description; as it will suit the parliaments in the present, as well as it suited those in the preceding period²³⁴. The scheme of James I. to divide the parliament into two houses having unhappily miscarried, it was never revived; but the number of freeholders foon became too great to meet in one place, and many of them too poor to afford the expence of attendance. By a law of James II. all freeholders who have not above twenty pounds a year were freed from the obligation of attending parliament²³⁵. In the reign of James IV. that fum was thought too fmall, and a law was made to excuse all freeholders who had not above

²¹⁴ See book v. c. 3. fect. 2.

James II. act 85.

an hundred marks a-year of rent from their perfonal attendance in parliament, but permitting, or rather requiring, them to fend a proxy, by some lord or baron of their neighbourhood 236. Hardly any accounts of the debates in the ancient parliaments of Scotland are preferved, and it is probable they were neither very many nor very long, as our ancestors in those times delighted and excelled more in acting than haranguing. It appears, however, from fome hints, that there were debates, and these sometimes very warm. From the records of the parliament A.D. 1524., we plainly perceive that there were very hot debates. on chusing the committee ad articulos, (on the articles,) between the party of the Queen-dowager and the party of her husband the Earl of Angus, and that feveral protests were taken on both fides. But the minutes are fo fhort, that it would not be eafy to explain the grounds of thefe debates 237. We know also that there were very violent debates on the appointment of the Duke of Albany to the regency in the minority of James V.; and still more violent debates on the appointment of the Earl of Arran to the regency after the death of that king. But few particulars of these debates are preserved.

The right of making and repealing laws, and im- Making pofing taxes, refided folely in the King and parlia- laws, &c. ment; and we never hear of any of the kings of Scotland in the times we are now confidering, who attempted to make, repeal, or difpense with laws, to impose taxes, or even to demand loans and be-

²³⁶ James IV. act 113. L. VOL. XII.

²³⁷ Records of Parl. A.D. 1524. nevolences N

nevolences from their subjects by their own authority. The laws were called the King's laws; not because the King had made them, but because the execution of them was by the constitution committed to the King. The parliaments of Scotland fometimes fet bounds to the undoubted prerogatives of the crown, when they apprehended they were in danger of being improperly exercised. An act was made in the parliament A.D. 1503., that the King should not pardon any who had been found guilty of wilful premeditated murder. But this was done (as appears by the act itself') at the earnest defire of the King, to free him from importunate folicitations, and was to continue in force only till it was recalled by the King 238. No little pains was taken to promulgate the laws, and make them known to all the fubjects. All fheriffs, provofts, and baillies, were commanded to take copies of the acts of every parliament, and to cause them to be proclaimed in all cities, burghs, and towns within their bounds 239. The justice-clerk was directed to extract all the penal laws, and give copies of them to all the judges and sheriffs 240. The acts of James V. were the first that were printed, by Thomas Davidson the King's printer, A.D. 1541. "That all theriffs, flewarts, bailies, provofts and " bailies of burrows, and other the King's lieges, " might have copies thereof." 241

Execution of the laws.

The best and wifest laws are of little use, if they are not properly executed by intelligent

²³⁸ James IV. act 97.

³⁴º Ibid. act 77.

²³⁹ Ibid. act 60.

²⁴¹ James V. act 108.

and upright judges. To this important business the government of Scotland paid no little attention in the prefent period. As all sheriffs of shires. stewarts of stewartries, baillies of regalities and baronies, and provofts and baillies in burrows, were commanded to furnish themselves with copies of the laws; fo they had a share in the execution of these laws, both civil and criminal, within their respective jurisdictions. Their courts, however, were not supreme, nor their sentences always final, but in many cases subject to be reviewed and reverfed by the King's courts and the King's judges. The King and those to whom he delegated that part of his prerogative were the supreme and final judges, from whose fentences there lay no appeal.

were called, were executed by the high justiciary, or justice-general, whose jurisdiction (except in regalities) was univerfal. That great officer, his deputies and affeffors, held juffice-aires, or jufficecourts, twice in the year in different parts of the kingdom, for the trial of all within a certain diftrict who were accused of having committed crimes that deserved punishment. These courts were held with great folemnity, attended by all the lords, barons, and gentlemen in the diffrict, and a great concourse of people. The King was fometimes prefent at these justice-aires, which rendered them more folemn and more effectual. At one of thefe courts, in May, A.D. 1529., at which the Kingwas prefent, William Cockburn of Hunderland, and Adam Scot of Tushilaw, two turbulent predatory

The penal laws, or matters of dittay, as they Juffice-

of Bothwell, the Lords Hume and Maxwell, the Lairds of Buccleugh, Fairnihirst, Polwort, and Johnstone, were imprisoned 242. James V. is highly and justly praised for the activity and fpirit with which he purfued those who fled from, or refifted the officers of justice. In doing this, it is faid, he fometimes fpent whole days on horfeback, enduring much fatigue, and exposing himfelf to no little danger. In one of these expeditions he apprehended and hanged no fewer than forty of the banditti on the borders, who had often endangered the peace of the two kingdoms, by their incursions into England, as well as plundered their fellow-fubjects. Among others, their leader, John Armstrong of Giltknockhall, who had laid the north of England for many miles under contribution, was feized and hanged, though he offered a great fum of money for his life. These examples struck such terror into the other lawless people of those parts, that they either fled or remained quiet, and the country for fome time enjoyed so much fafety, that it became a common faying, the rush-bush keeps the cow.

There were now, and there had long been, feveral courts in Scotland for executing the civil laws respecting property, and determining disputes between subject and subject; as the sheriff's court, the regality and barony courts, and the baillie's court in burrows. But the jurifdiction of all these courts was confined within narrowlimits; none of them was of fufficient dignity, nor the judges who prefided in them fufficiently learned and respect-

able to be trufted with the decision of disputes of great importance between perfons of high rank, or even with the final determination of matters of less moment. At all times, therefore, a court of fupreme authority and universal jurisdiction was necessary. Such was anciently the aula regis, or king's court, not only in Scotland, but in all the other kingdoms of Europe. This was the great regality court of the whole kingdom, in which the Kingprefided, the great officers of the crown were the judges, and all who held their lands immediately of the crown were fuitors. This court fat in the hall of the King's palace; its authority was fupreme; its jurifdiction was univerfal; and it received appeals from all inferior courts 243. The greatness of this court, the multiplicity of its functions, with the incapacity and aversion of its members to perform them, occasioned its decline and fall before the commencement of our present period.

To fupply the place of this great court, feveral Courts, other courts were established, in succession, by the King and parliament. The first of these, called the Session, was erected in the reign of James I., A.D. 1425., and hath been already described 244. But this court was soon found to be desective; and several attempts were made to amend it in the two succeeding reigns, but to little purpose. One of the great desects of the court called the Session is thus described in the preamble to the act of parlialiament for abolishing it A.D. 1503: "There hath

²⁴³ Du Cange Gloff. voce Guria.

²⁴⁴ James I. act 72, 73, 74, 75. See vol. x. p. 104.

" been great confusion of summonds at every fef-" fions, fo that leifure and space at a proper time " of the year could not be had for ending them; " and the poor people are delayed from year to " year, through which they wanted justice 245." Toremedythis and other inconveniences, another court was erected by the fame act, called the daily Council, which was to fit constantly at Edinburgh, or where the King refided or appointed, " to de-" cide all manner of fummons in civil matters, " complaints, and causes daily, as they should " happen to occur; and that the judges should " have the fame power with the lords of fession 246." But though this new court remedied fome of the defects of the former, it was found to be in other respects equally ineffectual. Its judges had no fixed falaries; and not being bound to attendance by any penalties, they attended fo ill, that very often a competent number of judges could not be collected to carry on the business of the court 247. Political arrangements, though they may appear feafible in speculation, sometimes contain defects, which nothing but experience can difcover.

Papal bull-

Complaints against the daily council being loud when John Duke of Albany arrived in Scotland and took upon him the government, that wise prince formed the plan of a supreme court of a greater dignity, efficacy, and stability, which it is probable he copied from the parliament of Paris, with which he was well acquainted. He was fen-

246 Ibid.

²⁴⁵ James IV. act 92.

²⁴⁷ Lord Kaimes's Law Tracts, p. 268.

fible that fuch a court could not be established on folid grounds, without a competent fund for the falaries of its judges and other members. The dignified clergy were by far the richest body of men in the kingdom, in proportion to their numbers; and the Duke proposed to procure some of their superfluous wealth, as a fund for this intended establishment. With this view he directed his ambaffador at the court of Rome to represent to the Pope, (who was then confidered as the fovereign of all the clergy, and the guardian of all the revenues of the church,) that his most obedient fon, James King of Scots, defigned to establish a college of justice, composed of honourable and learned men, to administer justice to his subjects, and to petition His Holiness to grant the King a fum of money annually out of the revenues of the prelates of his kingdom, for the support of his intended college. To render his scheme more palatable to the Popeand clergy, the Duke agreed that one-half of the fenators or judges in his new college fhould always be clergymen. The Pope did not grant this petition till after the Duke of Albany had left Scotland and was deprived of the regency. But at length the perplexed state of affairs in Germany and England made both the Pope and the clergy more willing to gratify the King of Scotland; and Clement VII., by a bull, A.D. 1531., granted him twelve thousand ducats of gold a-year out of the revenues of the archbishops, abbots, and priors of his kingdom, for the use of his intended college of justice. 248

justice.

College of Soon after this bull was brought to Scotland a parliament met at Edinburgh May 17th, A.D. 1532.; to which the King communicated his intention "to institute ane college of cunning and wife "men, baith of spiritual and temporal estate, for doing and administration of justice in all civil ac-"tions; and therefore thinks to be chosen certain " persons most convenient and qualified therefore " to the number of fourteen persons, half spiritual, " half temporal, with ane prefident." The King further defired the parliament to authorife thefe fifteen perfons to fit and decide upon all civil actions²⁴⁹. The parliament approved of the intended institution, ratified and confirmed it, and gave the fentence and decreets of the new court all the strength, force, and effect that the decreets of the lords of fession had in all times bygone; i. e. that they could be reviewed and reverfed only by parliament. At the defire of the King, the parliament also named the fifteen first fenators of the college of justice, or lords of council and fession, as this new court was called. If the King by his prerogative could have inflituted this court and appointed the judges, he certainly acted with great condescension in referring the whole to parliament. But as parliament was in use to name the lords of fession, it was perhaps thought that they had a right to name the judges of that court that was fubflituted in its place. The King appointed the Lord Chancellor, and the Abbot of Cambuskenneth prefident of the new court, to administer the

oaths to the other lords; and directed the whole of the judges to fpend the next eight days in forming rules for regulating their future proceedings, and to begin to hear causes on the Monday following. The rules were first approved and subscribed by the King, and afterwards confirmed by parliament; but they are too numerous to be here inferted, and many of them have been fince changed 250. By fuch steps, and with such deliberation, was the supreme court of the council and fession established. It hath long slourished, and still continues to flourish, much improved in the extent of its jurifdiction, the multiplicity and variety of its business, and the learning of its judges.

This court at it's establishment appears to have Charter. been a great favourite of James V. who granted it a charter, dated at Stirling June 10th, A.D. 1532.; in which he expressed his approbation of the inflitution in the ftrongest terms; promised to protect the persons, fortunes, and honours of the judges, and to punish severely such as attempted to injure them in any of these respects, or prefumed to treat them with contempt. He granted them also an exemption from all taxes, contributions, and other extraordinary charges in all time to come, and from bearing any office or charge, but with their own free will and confent251. This exemption was probably granted to the judges of this new court on account of the smallness of their falaries, which are not indeed mentioned in this charter; but from the scantiness of the funds we

may conclude they could not be great. By two of the regulations above mentioned, for directing the future proceedings of this new court, we are informed that ten gentlemen were named by the judges to be advocates, and appointed to plead causes before them; and that the judges at the same time regulated the sees of the writers to the signet 252: but neither the advocates nor the writers to the signet are mentioned in the charter of exemption from taxes and offices; and it doth not clearly appear whether they were then considered as members of the college of justice, or only as necessary appendages to the court, and nurseries for the bench.

As one half of the ordinary lords or judges of this court, at its first institution, were clergymen, and the other half laymen, and the president was a clergyman, the clergy had a majority of one on the bench. To counterbalance this the chancellor had a seatand vote when he pleased, and presided when he was present; and the King had a power (which he exercised) of appointing three or sour noblemen to be extraordinary lords, and to have seats and votes with the other judges, but no salaries 253. Ten other judges and the president were a quorum. 254

Nobile officium. The court of council and fession was for some time very popular, and gave universal content²⁵⁵. The judges acted with great modesty, caution, and even dissidence. When a cause came before them that appeared perplexed and dissicult, instead of determining it themselves, they referred it to par-

²⁵² Black Acts James V. fol. 56.

²⁵⁴ Ibid. fol. 55.

²⁵³ Ibid. fol. 53.

²⁵⁵ Buchan, lib.xiv. p. 273.

liament for a decision 256. By degrees, however, they acquired more courage and greater confidence in their own abilities and powers. When a case occurred to which none of the existing laws applied, or when applied, led to a rigorous oppreffive fentence, they no longer referred it to parliament, but ventured to determine it themselves, by what appeared to them agreeable to the rules of natural equity and justice. The authority by which they did this, at first had no name, but it came afterwards to be called their nobile officium; which, it was faid, was effential to every fupreme court, to enable it to do material juffice; and that it was peculiarly necessary to the supreme court of Scotland, in which there was no feparate court of equity as in England. Though all this feems to be reasonable, and it is to be hoped that this nobile officium hath been generally used for the benefit of individuals and of the public, the first appearance of it was very unpopular, and excited violent clamours, that the property of the people of Scotland was at the mercy of fifteen men, who determined every thing by their arbitrary will and pleafure 257. But this change and these clamours did not take place till after the conclusion of the prefent period.

To render this establishment still more firm, if Paval bull. possible, King James folicited and obtained a bull of confirmation of his college of justice from Pope Paul III., datedat Rome March 31st, A. D. 1535. By this bull the Pope not only confirmed, in the most solemn manner, the twelve thousand ducats

formerly granted by the clergy, but he also gave the King a power to appropriate to the support of his college certain benefices in the gift of the crown as they became vacant, to the amount of two hundred pounds fterling a-year. Further, to please the King, and to shew his favour to his inflitution, he exempted the prefident and fourteen ordinary lords, their clerks, notaries, advocates, and other officers, (who appear to have been now. confidered as members of the college of juffice,) from the jurifdiction and vifitation of all archbishops, bishops, and other prelates, and took them. under the immediate protection of the holy fee²⁵⁸. Thus was this inftitution fenced and guarded by every fecurity, spiritual and temporal, that could possibly be devised.

Prerogatives of the crown.

The prerogatives of the crown of Scotland were the same in this as in the preceding periods. But these prerogatives were never very diftinctly ascertained, very firmly established, or very uniformly exercifed. They varied with the circumflances of the kingdom and the characters of the kings; and they were interrupted and diminished by frequent and long minorities, during which the reins of government were much relaxed. It is fufficient therefore to fay, that Scotland was a limited monarchy, and that its princes were bound by the conflitution and by their coronation oaths to govern according to the laws, and by the advice of their parliaments. In particular, it appears to have been a fixed principle, that they could not make or repeal any law, nor impose any taxes on

their subjects, without the consent of the three estates. The vassals of the crown with their sollowers cheerfully attended the royal standard whenever they were called for the defence of their country; but they sometimes hesitated, and even resused, and could not be compelled to pass the borders and invade England. This was a constitutional, and often a salutary restraint on the ambition and martial ardour of their kings, which gave them great offence, but to which they were obliged to submit.

The kings of Scotland in this period were undoubtedly poor princes in proportion to the kings of France and England, who were at the head of much larger and more opulent kingdoms; but they were not poor in proportion to their own dominions, to the circumflances of their fubjects, and to their necessary expenditure. Nor was there any nation in Europe that discovered a greater desire to support their princes in a manner suitable to their rank than the Scots. In the records of all the parliaments of this period an extreme anxiety appears to preserve, improve, and increase the revenues of the crown; and many acts were made for these purposes, some of which will be hereafter mentioned.

The stated hereditary revenues which the kings of Scotland derived from the immediate vassals of the crown, were of the same kind with those of every other seudal kingdom, and particularly with those of England, which have been already described in the third chapter of the third book of this work, to which description (to prevent repetitions)

petitions) the reader is referred 259. These revenues, therefore, bore the same proportion to their dominions with those of other princes. Besides thefe, they derived revenues from various other fources; as from the customs, on all commodities exported and imported; from the royal mines, which were then valuable, and were wrought by people from Germany; from the revenues of vacant bishoprics, abbies, and priories; from forfeitures and escheats of various kinds; from the estates of lunatics, and the goods of convicts; from fines and amerciaments for trespasses and delinquencies of many different kinds; for money paid for grants of liberties, immunities, and privileges, to towns and corporations; from wrecks, waifs, eftrays, treasure-trove, &c. &c. Some of thefe revenues were fmall, but when they were accumulated they were confiderable, and they bore still the same proportion to the extent and circumstances of their dominions, with those of the fame kind in other countries.

Crown lands.

Carullice

But the lands that were unalienably annexed to the crown, and were from time to time receiving great additions, afforded the greatest revenues to the kings of Scotland at this time; and over these the parliament watched with as much attention to epreserve, improve, and increase them, as any proprietor watched over his own eftate. It was a fixed principle to which the parliaments of Scotland steadily adhered, that the lands of the crown could not be legally and irrecoverably alienated, without the confent of the three eftates; and

that if a king granted any of thefe lands without fuch confent, it was an illegal deed, which might and ought to be revoked. Thefe lands were confidered as the eftate of the nation, of which the reigning king was the ufufructuary, and the three estates were the guardians 260. These were the undoubted principles of the constitution. They were often indeed violated, but never forgotten. Favourites prevailed upon kings to grant them portions of the crown lands, but these grants were never fecure; they were foon difcovered by the vigilance, and revoked by the authority of parliament. Of these revocations we meet with two or three in every reign 261. Parliament even took measures to prevent kings from giving, and courtiers from foliciting fuch grants. A very remarkable law was made on this fubject in the reign of James II. A.D. 1454. In the preamble tothat law it is observed, "That the poverty of the crown " is oft-times the cause of the poverty of the realm, " and of many other inconveniencies." To prevent these it is statute and ordained in full parliament, "That in every part of the realm, for the "King's refidence, there be certain lordships and " caftles annexed to the crown, perpetually to re-" main, which may not be given away in fee and " heritage or frank tenement to any person, of what "eftate or degree thatever he be, without the ad-" vice, deliverance, and decreet of the whole par-" liament, and for great and reasonable causes of

²⁶⁰ Stat. James I. act 10. 148. James II. act 2. 8. 43. James III. act 86, 87. James IV. act 24. 41. 82. James V. act 40. 54. 96.

²⁶¹ Black Acts passim.

⁶⁶ the

"the realm." The act then declares all grants of annexed lands null and void; that they may be revoked without any law-process, and that those who have enjoyed any of these lands by virtue of fuch grants, shall refund all the profits they had reaped from them. It is further enacted, "That " our fovereign lord that now is, be fworn, and in " like manner all his fucceffors, kings of Scotland, " at their coronation, to the keeping of this sta-"tute, and all the points thereof 262." It feems to have been impossible for parliament to have taken more effectual precautions to prevent the alienation of the crown lands, than those contained in this act, which certainly had its effect for a confiderable length of time, especially as it was revived and confirmed by feveral fubfequent acts.

Annexations.

The crown lands received great additions from time to time, by forfeitures, reversions, and some other ways; and parliament took care to annex thefe additional lands firmly to the crown foon after they came into the King's hands, to prevent their alienation. Of this we meet with feveral examples in the monuments of those times; the most remarkable of which is that great annexation made by a parliament at Edinburgh, A.D. 1540., of the lands that had been forfeited by the Earl of Angus and his partifans, by Sir James Hamilton, and many others. By this one act all the following lordships, lands, and caftles were annexed to the crown in the strictest manner: "The lands and lordship of all the isles, fouth and north; the two Kintyres,

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" with their castles and pertinents; the lands and "lordships of Orkney, Zetland, with the isles of pertaining thereto, and their pertinents; the " lands and lordship of Douglas, with the castle, " tower, and fortalice thereof, donations, and ad-" vocations of kirks and benefices, and their per-" tinents; the lands and lordships of Crawford-"John and Crawford-Lindfay; the lands and " lordships of Bonkill, Preston, and Tomtallon, " with towers, fortalices, rents, donations, and " advocations of kirks; the lands of Dunfire; "the lands and lordship of Jedburgh-forest; the " lands and lordship of Kerrymure, with all their " pertinents; the superiority of all the earldom " of Angus, and all other lands, rents, and pof-" fessions which pertained to Archibald, some " time Earl of Angus, the time of the faid Earl's " forfeiture, and now in our Sovereign Lord's " hands by reason thereof; the lands and lord-" ship of Glamis that are not holden of the kirk; "the lands of Baky, Balmutus, Tannades, " Drumgleas, Longforgund, and Bathilweis, with " the towers, fortalices, advocations, and dona-" tions of kirks, and their pertinents; the lands of Racklewch, Whitecampt, Over and Nether " Howclewch; the lands and barony of Iven-"dale, with the tower and fortalices thereof, " advocations and donations of kirks, &c.; the " lands and lordship of Liddisdale, with the caftle of Hermitage, advocation and dona-"tion, and their pertinents; the lands and " lordship of Bothwel, with the tower, fortalice, VOL. XII.

and their pertinents263." This was an immense addition to the land-eftate of the crown, already

very great.

The parliaments of Scotland not only paid attention to the preservation and increase of the crown lands, but also to the faithful collection of their rents, and the improvement of their annual value. For the first of these purposes, they sometimes chose certain noblemen of the first rank, in different parts of the kingdom, to superintend the collection of the King's rents in their respective districts 264. For the second, they made a law permitting James V. to feu a part of his lands, annexed and unannexed, upon condition that he received an advanced rent²⁶⁵. But this law was to continue in force only during that king's life.

When parliaments discovered so much solicitude to support the dignity of the crown, the kings of Scotland could not be poor in proportion to their necessary expenditure, which is the most material circumstance. A prince with great revenues, whose expences are ftill greater, is really poor; and a prince with comparatively fmall revenues, whose expences are still smaller, is really rich. This last was the situation of the kings of Scotland in this period. Their revenues were fmall when compared to those of the kings of France and England; but their necessary expenditure was smaller, when compared to that of these two princes. The kings of Scotland could form no ambitious pro-

265 James V. act 97.

²⁶³ James V. act 54.75. 264 James IV. act 26.

jects of conquest, with which these other princes were almost constantly inflamed, and on which they exhaufted their treasures, as well as the blood of their subjects. The civil government of Scotland was fo conflituted, that it cost the kings very little. The fupreme court cost them nothing: they had no flanding army of their own fubjects to fupport, and they hired no foreign mercenaries. Wars, which were fo burthenfome to the kings of France and England, put the kings of Scotland to very little expence. They had no wars but with England, which were either defensive, or sudden predatory incursions. When their country was invaded, all the vaffals of the crown, with their followers, and even all the fubjects who were able to bear arms, were obliged to attend the royal flandard, to repel the invaders at their own expence. The predatory incursions were undertaken by martial chieftains and bold adventurers, from the defire of revenge, or the hopes of booty, fometimes with, and fometimes without the king's permission, but never at his expence. The kings of Scotland were not even at the expence of the ambaffadors fent to England, France, Denmark, and other courts. That expence was defrayed by a fmall tax imposed by parliament²⁶⁶. In a word, the revenues of the crown of Scotland were chiefly intended for fupporting the King's court and household in a manner fuitable to the royal dignity, and for that purpose they were more than sufficient. Accord-

²⁶⁵ James II. act 51. James III. act 62. 90. 126. James IV. act 22. 45, 46, 72.

ingly these princes married into the greatest families in Europe; had magnificent palaces, numerous attendants, and lived with splendour and in affluence. They never complained of the scantiness of their revenues: they never applied to parliament for supplies, or for the payment of their debts: they never once attempted to extort a farthing from their subjects, by loans, benevolences, and other oppressive arts, which were so often employed by the greatest princes in Europe their contemporaries. They were under no necessity of employing such arts.

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HISTORY

OF

GREAT BRITAIN.

BOOK VI.

CHAPTER IV.

History of Learning, of learned Men, and of the chief Seminaries of Learning that were founded in Great Britain, from A. D. 1485. to A. D. 1547.

I T was only a very brief account of the state of Account learning and of the several sciences in every of the sciences period, that was promised in the plan of this work short. In the preface prefixed to the first volume 267. This was all that could with any propriety be introduced into general history. To have attempted to give regular extended systems of every science in every period, would have been a most preposterous absurd attempt. Such systems

267 See the General Preface, p. xxi.

tems would have been useless and unnecessary to the learned, and tedious and difgusting to the bulk of readers; would have quite deftroyed the fymmetry of this work, and fwelled every fourth chapter to an enormous fize. What was proposed in the plan is thus expressed: " It is only design-" ed to lay before the reader a clear and concife " account of the general flate of each science; "its decline or progress; its most remarkable de-" fects and most important improvements: This " is all that falls within the province of general " history on subjects of this nature; all that can " be univerfally ufeful and agreeable, or reafon-" ably defired and expected in a work of this " kind268." Though fuch brief accounts of the general state of learning may be of little use to the learned in literary history, they may be both instructive and entertaining to many other readers, who have neither leifure nor inclination to perufe more voluminous works on these subjects. They may contribute also to diffuse the same of those ingenious men who have done honour to their country by their learned labours, and enriched it with the ftores of useful knowledge.

A dark period. The morning of that auspicious day which succeeded that long night of ignorance in which almost all Europe had been involved from the fall of the western empire, had already dawned on Italy, and some other parts of the continent, but had not yet reached this little sequestered world of Britain. While learning was reviving in some other countries, it was languishing and declining

in this island; and the period that immediately preceded the prefent was here one of the darkeft and most illiterate 259. In every former period, the darkest not excepted, some extraordinary men arose; as the venerable Bede, Alfred the Great, Roger Bacon, Doctor Wickliff, &c. who, by the force of their genius and application, diffipated, in some degree, the gloom with which they were furrounded, and rendered their names immortal. But in the fifteenth century there was not fo much as one man in Britain who acquired, or indeed deferved, a very extensive or permanent reputation by his writings.

But our present period presents us with a more Plan of agreeable prospect. A better taste, and a greater the chapter, efteem and love of learning were introduced, and became gradually more general and more ardent. That we may have a diftinct view of this happychange, which hath been productive of fo much innocent and rational pleasure to individuals, and of fo many benefits to fociety, it will be proper to give a brief account, 1. Of the sciences that were most successfully cultivated: 2. Of the most learned men who flourished: and, 2. Of the principal feminaries of learning that were founded in Britain in the prefent period.

269 See vol. x. c. 4. fect. I.

SECTION I.

A brief Account of the Sciences that were most fuccessfully cultivated in Britain, from A. D. 1485. to A. D. 1547.

Obstructions to learning.

REAT industry, and an enthusiastic attachment to literary pursuits, were as necessary as genius to the revivers of learning. They had many difficulties to encounter, and few things to animate and encourage them in their labours. Books were still very scarce and dear. The art of printing had been introduced into England a few years before. But the first productions of the English press were very poor performances, and contributed very little to the improvement of tafte or revival of learning. Honest William Caxton, inflead of printing the Latin and Greek classics in their original languages, with which he was unacquainted, printed his own degrading translations of some of them from French translations, no lefs degrading, which could give their readers no ideas of their beauties. Inftructors were still scarcer than books. The path was untrodden, and guides could not be procured. Learning was not yet become the road to preferment. The nobility in general were illiterate, and despised, rather than patronised, learning and learned men, "It is enough (faid a nobleman to "Richard Pace, secretary to Henry VIII.) for " noblemen's fons to wind their horn and carry " their hawk fair, and leave fludy and learning

"to the children of mean people 270." Henry VII. was neither a learned nor a generous prince. He employed indeed feveral clergymen in his affairs, not on account of their uncommon learning, but of their skill in business and dexterity in negotiations, and to fave his money, by rewarding them with benefices instead of falaries. After the reformation had commenced in Germany, and many began to favour it in Britain, those who deviated from the beaten track in their studies were fufpected of herefy, and discouraged and persecuted on that account. But notwithstanding this, a number of ingenious and industrious men appeared in this period, who fur mounted all the fe difficulties; and by their example, their exhortations, and the beauty and elegance of their writings, brought a better kind of learning into reputation, and gave a happy turn to the tafte and studies of the age.

No province of literature was cultivated with Latin lane fo much care and fuccess by the revivers of guage. learning in the present period, as philology, or the accurate knowledge of languages, particularly of the Latin and Greek classics. The neglect into which the works of the philosophers, poets, and historians of Greece and Rome had fallen, was one great cause of the decline of learning, and of the bad tafte and barbarism of the middle ages. The revivers of learning, therefore, acted wifely in beginning its revival, by removing one of the great causes of its decline. By acquiring a correct and critical knowledge of the language, ftyle, and manner of those ex-

cellent writers, they obtained two great advantages; they had access to all the stores of wisdom and eloquence their writings contained, and to all the pleafure their perufal could afford; and by imitating fuch beautiful models, they acquired the art of communicating their own thoughts to the world in a perspicuous, elegant, and pleasing manner. In this art some of the revivers of learning, both in Britain and on the continent, fucceeded to admiration, and wrote in Latin with a claffical purity not unbecoming the Augustan age 271. The fuccefs, exhortations, and example. of those eminent men, and of many others, brought the study of the Latin language into fashion; the barbarous jargon formerly used was despised; and to be able to speak and write pure and claffical Latin, was confidered as a valuable, and even a polite accomplishment, to which perfons of high rank and of both fexes aspired. To affift youth in the acquifition of this accomplishment, the greatest scholars of the age, as Erasmus, Linacer, Sir John Cheke, and many others, did not disdain to spend their time in writing rudiments, grammars, vocabularies, colloquies, and other books. The haughty monarch Henry VIII., and his no less haughty minister Cardinal Wolfey, flooped to employ their pens in writing instructions to youth in the fludy of this favourite language. The King, it is faid, wrote a treatife de instituenda pube, and an Introduction to Grammar; and the Cardinal composed a system

²⁷¹ Sir Thomas More, Doctor Linacer, William Lilly, George Buchannan, &c. &c.

of instructions to be observed by the masters in the school he founded at Ipswich, his native town 272. The Cardinal had been a schoolmaster, and was well qualified for giving thefeinfructions, which are equally fenfible and particular. James IV. of Scotland was a great admirer of a pure and claffical style in writing Latin, and a zealous promoter of the fludy of that language. His own letters are written with greater purity and elegance than those of any other prince in Europe 273. He put his natural fon, Alexander Archbishop of Saint Andrew's, a mostingenious youth, under the care of the great Erasmus; and he procured an act of parliament to be made, A. D. 1496., " obliging all barons and freeholders that " are of fubstance, to put their eldest sons to the " grammar schools at eight or nine years of age, "to remain there till they were competently "founded, and had perfect Latin 274." In a word, the Roman claffics were now studied with so much diligence, and the capacity of imitating their flyle and manner was fo much valued, that the fixteenth century may very properly be called seculum Latinum, the Latin age.

The reftorers of learning found much greater Greek landifficulty in acquiring the knowledge of the Greek guage. language themselves, and in persuading others that the knowledge of it was either necessary or useful. That copious and beautiful language, in which fo

²⁷² Walpole's Royal and Noble Authors, p. 8, 9. Strvpe's Memorials, vol. i. p. 223. Ibid. Appendix, No. 35.

²⁷³ Epistolæ Regum Scotorum, vol. i.

²⁷⁴ James IV. act 87.

many of the philosophers, poets, historians, and orators of antiquity had written, was almost quite unknown in Britain in the beginning of this period. The celebrated Erasmus of Rotterdam, the most zealous and successful restorer of learning, came into England A. D. 1497., and went to Oxford with a defign to teach Greek; but he met with much opposition and little encouragement. Many both of the fecular and regular clergy declaimed against him in the schools, and even in the pulpit, with great bitterness. They railed particularly against his Greek New Testament, as a most impious and dangerous book 275. He continued, however, to teach there a confiderable time, encouraged by a few ingenious men, who gladly received his instructions, and afterwards communicated them to others, by which a tafte for the fludy of the Greek language was gradually excited, not only among the youth, but in some members of the university who were far advanced in life. In this, however, little progress was made for several years, owing to the unhappy flate of the university, which was frequently vifited and dispersed by the sweating-sickness, distracted by riots, and disgraced by the general ignorance and profligacy of its members. 276

The accession of Henry VIII. was an event favourable to learning, for which he had a taste, and in which he had made some proficiency. He was at the same time rich and generous, and fond of praise, which made many entertain hopes that he

²⁷⁵ A. Wood, Hift. Univer. Oxon. lib. i. p. 237.

²⁷⁰ Ibid. p. 240.

would prove a liberal patron to men of literary merit. On this event the Lord Mountjoy, who was a great admirer and had been a pupil of Erafmus. pressed him to come into England; promising him the patronage of the King, of Warham Archbishop of Canterbury, and of other great men. He complied with the invitation, and arrived in London, A. D. 1509. After spending fome time with his friend Sir Thomas More, he went to Cambridge, with a defign to promote the interest of learning, and particularly the study of the Greek tongue, which had been as much neglected in that as in the other university. But though he was patronifed by the Chancellor, Fisher Bishop of Rochester, and appointed profeffor of Greek, he had little fuccess, and found the academicians of Cambridge as ignorant and averse to study as those of Oxford. He explained the grammar of Chryfotoras to a few poor scholars, who could give him little or nothing for his labour; and his expences far exceeded his gains 277. So difficult was it to rouse the students of the? times from that lethargy into which they had fallen, and to correct the bad tafte they had contracted.

The diffention between the friends and enemies Greeks of the Greek language and learning at Oxford did and Tronot terminate when Erasmus left that university. On the contrary, they were formed into two parties; one of which was called the Greeks, and the other the Trojans. As the Trojans were the most numerous, (almost all the monks being true Tro-

jans,) they were the most insolent. When a poor Greek appeared on the street, or in any public place, he was attacked by the Trojans with hiffes, taunts, and infults of all kinds. But the triumphs of the Trojans were not of long duration. The King and his great favourite Cardinal Wolfey having warmly espoused the cause of the Greeks, their numbers, their credit, and their courage daily encreafed, the Greek language became a favourite study, and the Trojans were obliged to quit the field. 278

But after the fludy of the Greek language had become fashionable, a controversy about the true pronunciation of it arose between Sir John Cheke, professor of Greek at Cambridge, and Stephen Gardner, Chancellor of that university and Bishop of Winchester. This controversy (a minute account of which cannot be introduced into general history) was conducted with great modesty and learning by the professor, who proved by many arguments, that the pronunciation which had been introduced in the dark ages was abfurd and faulty in many respects; and in particular, that by giving the same sound to several different letters, it destroyed the beauty, variety, and musical fweetness of the language, which were restored by the new pronunciation. To all this the haughty chancellor replied by a thundering decree, denouncing very fevere censures on all who dared to drop the old, and adopt the new pronunciation 279.

²⁷⁸ A. Wood, Hift. Univer. Oxon. lib. i. p. 246. 279 Strype's Life of Sir John Cheke, p. 17, &c. His Memorials, vol, i. p. 372.

On this occasion reason proved too strong for mere authority. The decree was foon difregarded, and the new pronunciation prevailed, and still prevails. Thus in the space of about thirty years a great change was brought about in the flate of learning and the tafte of the learned in Britain, by the labours of a few active and ingenious men, in opposition to inveterate habits, strong prejudices, and the indolence, ignorance, diffolute manners, and bad tafte that had long reigned in the feminaries of learning, and were not eafily overcome. The Roman and Greek claffics, which had been long neglected, and almost forgotten, were studied with the greatest ardour and fuccess; and their ftyle and manner admirably well imitated by feveral British as well as foreign writers in this period280. Some attempts were made to revive the fludy of the Hebrew, but not with the same success.

The patronage and liberality of the great con- Wolfey a tributed no less than the labours of the learned to patron of the revival of learning; nor was there in those times a more liberal patron of learning and learned men than the famous Cardinal Wolfey. This extraordinary man had a genius and tafte for learning, in which he had made great proficiency in his youth, and for which he retained a regard in his highest elevation. "Politer learning," fays Erafmus, " as yet struggling with the patrons of the " ancient ignorance, he upheld by his favour, de-" fended by his authority, adorned by his fplen-

²⁸⁰ See the Works of More, Buchannan, Cheke, Linacer, Collet, Scc. &cc.

"dour, and cherished by his kindness. Heinvited " all the most learned professors by his noble fa-" laries. In furnishing libraries with all kinds of " authors, of good learning, he contended with "Ptolemeus Philadelphushimfelf, who was more " famous for this than for his kingdom. He recalled the three learned languages, without " which all learning is lame 281." That all this was not flattery is certain. When the Cardinal vifited Oxford A. D. 1518., he founded no fewer than feven lectures; viz. in theology, civil law, phyfic, philosophy, mathematics, Greek, and rhetoric; and chose the most learned men he could procure to read those lectures 282. He at the same time intimated his intention of doing much greater things for the honour of the university, and the advancement of learning, which he executed in part, and, to his unspeakable forrow, was prevented from executing fully, by his unexpected fall.

Schoolmen despised.

The time and thoughts of the restorers of learning in our present period were so much engaged in the study of the belles lettres, that they could not pay the same attention to the sciences. These remained nearly in the same low and wretched state (a very sew excepted) in which they had been in the three preceding periods. The philosophic age was not yet arrived. It would be very improper therefore to encumber the pages of general history with a dry detail of the trivial changes that were now made in logic, metaphysics, natural and moral

²⁸¹ Erafmi Epift. lib. vi. ep. 21.

vita Wolfey. A. Wood, Hift. Univer. Oxon. lib. i. p. 250.

philosophy, arithmetic, mathematics, astronomy, &c. No genius, art, or industry, could render fuch a detail either instructive or entertaining 283. The logic, metaphyfics, and philosophy, of the fchools, which were in high reputation in the beginning of this period, gradually declining as a better tafte prevailed; and as the language of the philosophers of Greece and Rome came to be better understood, and their works more generally perused, the barbarous jargon, unintelligible subtilties, endless distinctions, and ponderous works of the schoolmen, came to be neglected and defpifed. Their volumes, which had been once highly prized and diligently studied, began to be treated with great contempt, and put to the most ignominious uses. The commissioners who were appointed to visit the university of Oxford, A.D. 1535., wrote thus to the Lord Cromwell: "We have " fet Dunce in Bocardo, and have utterly banished him Oxford for ever, with all his blind " gloffes; and he is now made a common fervant " to every man, fast nailed up upon posts in all common houses of easement. The second time " we came to New College, after we had declared " your injunctions, we found all the great qua-"drant court full of the leaves of Dunce, (Jo-" hannes Duns Scotus,) the wind blowing them " into every corner 284." The works of the other schoolmen no doubt shared the same sate, those of Thomas Aquinas perhaps excepted, as he was the King's favourite author.

²⁸³ See vol. vi. c.4. fect. 1.—vol viii. and x. c.4. fect. 1.
²⁸⁴ Strype's Memorials, vol.i. p. 210. A. Wood, lib.i. p. 260.
VOL. XII.

School divinity.

The theology of the schoolmen received as fevere a blow, and underwent as great a change at this time, as their philosophy; and the study of the languages, particularly the Greek, contributed as much to the one as to the other. In the beginning of this period, very few theologians underflood the original languages either of the Old or New Testament, or made the Scriptures their study. The Bible divines had been gradually decreafing in their credit and in their numbers from the thirteenth century, and in the fifteenth they were almost quite extinct 285. The professors of divinity read lectures only on the fentences of Peter Lombard, or on the fumms, as they were called, of other schoolmen. But when the study of the Greek language began to prevail, in the end of the fifteenth and beginning of the fixteenth century, feveral of the clergy applied to that fludy, and became acquainted with the New Testament in the original; of which an edition was published by Erasmus A. D. 1515.286 But these fludies were thought to be dangerous, and were discouraged by the great body of the clergy, as tending to make those who applied to them heretics. It foon appeared that they had that tendency, and that they paved the way for the reformation that followed. The tafte, however, that feveral ingenious men had contracted for this new learning, as it was called, was fo ftrong, that they were not deterred by reproaches, threats, and dangers, from communicating the knowledge they had acquired, and recommending the same

²⁰⁵ See vol. viii. ch. 4. sect. 1.

²⁹⁶ Erafm. Epift. 181.

studies to others. Doctor John Collet, the founder of St. Paul's school, and one of the most zealous revivers of learning, read public lectures at Oxford, A.D. 1497., on St. Paul's Epiftles, without fee or reward. These lectures excited great curiofity, and were attended by crowded audiences; but the lecturer was foon interrupted, by an accusation of herefy that was brought against him before Archbishop Warham, who had so great an esteem for him, on account of his virtue and learning, that he discouraged the prosecution, and fuffered him to escape 287. After Doctor Collet was appointed Dean of St. Paul's, A.D. 1505., he preached every Sunday in that cathedral, in an uncommon strain of eloquence, boldly condemning the cold unaffecting manner in which the clergy in general read their fermons; the worship of images; the celibacy of the clergy; and feveral fuperstitious ceremonies of the church. He encouraged his friend William Grocine, another of the revivers of learning, to read lectures on the New Testament in St. Paul's, which were well attended, and much admired 288. These sermons and lectures, and others of the same kind, together with the writings of Erasmus, and the other revivers of learning, diminished the reputation of scholaftic divinity, and excited in the minds of many, both of the clergy and laity, a defire of becoming acquainted with the Scriptures, and of drawing their religious opinions from those facred fountains, even before Luther began the reformation in Germany. The revivers of learning, therefore,

²⁸⁷ Knight's Life of Collet, p. 50.

²⁸⁸ Id. ibid.

contributed not a little to discredit the artificial theology of the schools, and to introduce the study of the Scriptures, by which they prepared the minds of men (some of them without intending it) for receiving the doctrines of the Reformation. Of this the enemies of the new learning were not ignorant; and they hated Erasmus, who they said had laid the egg, almost as much as they hated Luther, who they said had hatched it. 289

Physic, furgery, and all the branches of the healing art, were in a very imperfect flate at the beginning of this period, and even at the accession of Henry VIII. This we learn from an act of parliament made, A.D. 1511.: "The science " and cunning of physic and furgery (to the per-" feet knowledge whereof be requifite both great " learning and ripe experience) is daily within " this realm exercised by a great multitude of " ignorant perfons, of whom the greater parthave " no manner of infight in the fame, nor in any "other kind of learning; fome also ken no letters on the book; fo far forth, that common artificers, as fmiths, weavers, and women, 66 boldly and accustomably, take upon them great " cures, and things of great difficulty, in which "they partly use forcery and witchcraft, partly " apply fuch medicines unto the difease as bevery " notious, and nothing meet therefor, to the "high displeasure of God, great infamy to "the faculty, and the grievous hurt, damage, " and destruction of many of the King's liege " people, most especially of them that cannot

²⁸⁹ Jortin's Life of Erasmus, passim.

[&]quot; difcern

"differn the uncunning from the cunning 290." To prevent these evils it was enacted, that no person should act as a physician or surgeon in London, or within feven miles of it, till he was examined and approved by the Bishop of London or the Dean of St. Paul's, affifted by four doctors of phyfic or four expert furgeons, under the penalty of fix pounds for every month he had acted; one half to the King, and the other to the informer: and that no person should practise in any other part of England, without a licence from the bishop of the diocese, under the same penalty. The privileges and rights of the two universities were fecured. This law feems to have given a check to quackery, and to have diminished the number of practitioners of furgery in London. For two years after, the incorporation of furgeons in London, which confifted only of twelve persons, petitioned parliament to be exempted from the obligation of bearing arms and of ferving on juries, that they might be at all times at liberty to attend their practice. Their petition was granted, and that exemption is still enjoyed by the faculty 291. The parliament feems to have supposed that twelveregular furgeons would always be fufficient for London; as by the last article in the act the exemption is restricted to that number 292. How short-fighted are the greatest assemblies!

To refcue the practice of physic out of the ig- College of noble and unworthy hands by which it had been Physicians.

²⁹⁰ Stat. 3 Hen. VIII. c. 11.

291 5 Hen. VIII. c.6.

292 Ibid.

difgraced, and had done so much mischief, another defign was foon after formed and executed. This was the inftitution of the Royal College of Physicians in London. This defign, it is said, was formed by Doctor Thomas Linacer, physician to Henry VIII., and patronifed by Cardinal Wolfey, at whose defire the King granted a charter September 23d, A.D. 1518., incorporating Doctors John Chambre, Thomas Linacer, Ferdinando De Victoria, his own three physicians, with Nicholas Hatswell, John Francisco, and Robert Yaxley, phyficians, and the other gentlemen of the faculty in the city of London, into one body, community, and perpetual college. To this college Henry granted various rights, powers, and immunities, by his charter; fuch as, a right to elect a prefident annually for the government of the college; to have a common feal to purchase lands to a certain value; to fue and to be fued by the name and title of The Prefident and Community of the College of Physicians in London; and to make laws and regulations for the good government of the college. He granted them a power to practife as physicians in London, and seven miles round it: and that none who were not licenfed by the college should practife within that bounds, under the penalty of paying five pounds for every month they practifed. He gave them power to choose four of their members annually, to superintend and discover allirregular practitioners, and to punish them by fines, amerciaments, imprisonments, and other fit and reasonable ways. They had also authority to visit all apothecaries' shops, and

and examine their medicines, as often as they thought it necessary or proper. Finally, the members of the college and their licentiates were exempted from bearing arms or ferving on juries. This charter was confirmed by parliament A.D. 1523. 293 This inftitution was intended and calculated to raife the reputation of the medical profession, and prevent the people from being imposed upon by bold and ignorant adventurers, who sported with their lives, and robbed them of their money. These two acts of parliament, which were for some time strictly executed, had one remarkable effect:-by greatly diminishing the number of practitioners, they made the regular practice of physic and furgery exceedingly lucrative. "The most effectual security against po-" verty," faith Erasmus, " is the art of medicine, " which of all arts is the most remote from " mendicity." 294

The wifest legislators do not foresee all the consequences of their laws. The act 3 Hen. VIII. in favour of their corporation of surgeons in London, proved very inconvenient and oppressive; and that incorporation prosecuted many well-meaning charitable persons, who endeavoured to affist their poor neighbours in distress, with so much severity, that parliament found it necessary to interpose. An act was accordingly made, 35 Hen. VIII. A. D. 1543., representing in the preamble, "That since the act made in the third of that king, the company and fellowship of the furgeons of London, minding only their own

293 15 Hen. VIII. c. 5.

²⁹⁴ Erasmi Opera, tom.v. p.661.

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" lucures, and nothing the profit or eafe of the dife eafed and patient, have fued, troubled, and " vexed divers honest persons, as well men as " women, whom God hath endured with the " knowledge of the nature, kind, and operation of certain herbs, roots, and waters, and the " using and ministering them to such as been " pained with customable diseases; as women's " breafts being fore, a pin and web in the eve. " uncomes of hands, burnings, fealding, fore " mouths, the stone, strangury, saucelim, morcophew, and fuch other difeases; and yet the " faid perfons have not taken any thing for their co pains or cunning, but have ministered the same "to poor people, only for neighbourhood and "God's fake, and of pity and charity." To prevent these vexatious prosecutions, it was enacted, That it shall henceforth be lawful to every per-" fon, being the king's fubject, having knowledge " and experience of the nature of herbs, roots, " and waters, or of the operation of the same, by " fpeculation or practice, to practife, use, and minister, in and to any outward fore, uncome, " wound, apostemations, outward swelling, and difease, any herb or herbs, ointments, baths, of pultefs, and emplaifters, according to their cunning, experience, and knowledge, in any of the difeases, fores, and maladies beforesaid, " and all other like to the fame, or drinks for the " ftone, ftrangury, or agues, without fuit, vexation, penalty, or loss of their goods 295." In this statute the parliament gave the furgeons of

London a very bad character: " Most part of the faid craft of furgeons have fmall cunning, vet " they will take great fums of money and do " little therefor; and by reason thereof, they do " often times impair and hurt their patients, " rather than do them good. It is now well " known, that the furgeons admitted will do no cure to any person, but where they shall know " to be rewarded with a greater fum and reward " than the cure extendeth unto: for in case they would minister their cunning unto fore people unrewarded, there should not so many rot and " perish to death; for lack or help of furgery, as daily do295." This odious character will not apply to their fuccesfors in the prefent age.

Humane and skilful physicians and surgeons New difwere never more necessary than in the period we eases. are now examining. Besides the diseases formerly known, two new ones broke out at this time with great violence, and made prodigious havoc. These were the sweating sickness and the lucs venerea. Of the first of these diseases an account hath been already given 297. Of the fecond, a very fhort one will be fufficient. The most probable relation of the first appearance of the lues venerea in Europe feems to be the following: The famous Christopher Columbus, the discoverer of the new world, landed on the first island he faw in those unknown regions in December, A.D. 1492., and called it Hispaniola. There his men contracted that difease by their intercourse with the women of the country, where

it had long prevailed, and communicated it to the people of Barcelona on their arrival in that city in March, A. D. 1493., where it foon raged with fo much violence, that it excited universal horror and consternation. They considered it as a plague fent immediately from Heaven as a punishment for their fins, and endeavoured to appeale the offended Deity by masses, processions, prayers, and alms. Several companies of foldiers, who were generally infected with this new difeafe, were fent from Barcelona, A. D. 1494., to reinforce the Spanish army in Naples, for the defence of that kingdom against a French army which invaded it that year. What execution these foldiers did in the war is not recorded, but they did great execution by propagating their new distemper in the Spanish and French armies, and in the country around. The French, on their return into their own country, A.D. 1495., carried this pernicious present with them, and in a few years it was diffused into every corner of Europe 298. In France it was called the Neapolitan. and in Italy it was called the French difease; neither of these nations being ambitious of having its name. The physicians stood aghast at its first appearance, and none but the most ignorant and impudent empirics pretended to give the unhappy patients any relief. Under their management many died miferably, and many of those who furvived were wretched in themselves, and objects of difgust to others. The two mighty rivals, Charles V. and Francis I., were both infected

²⁹⁸ Aftruc on the Venereal Disease, b.i. c.s. and 10.

with this difease, and to the last of these princes it proved fatal 299. It was one of the articles of accufation brought by the house of peers, A.D. 1529., against the great Cardinal Wolfey, "That " knowing himfelf to have the foul and conta-" gious difease of the great pox broken out upon " him in divers places of his body, he came " daily to Your Grace, rowning in your ear, and " blowing upon Your most noble Grace with his " perilous and infective breath, to the marvellous danger of Your Highness, if God of his infinite goodness had not better provided for "Your Highness 300." So dangerous and so infectious was this disease believed to be at that time. By degrees the virulence of this odious diftemper, and the confernation occasioned by its first appearance, began to abate, and phyficians became better acquainted with its causes, its symptoms. and its cure. But these are not proper subjects for general history.

SECT. II.

History of the most learned Men who flourished in Britain, from A. D. 1485., to A. D. 1547.

A MONG the learned men who have flourished in the same period, in any nation, many of them may have enjoyed a certain degree of celebrity in their own times, but few of them have had their names transmitted with honour to posterity in the annals of their country, on account of the

Aftruc on the Venereal Disease, b.i. c. 1. p. 2.

fuperior excellence and utility of their works. Mediocrity is common, but is foon forgotten; excellence is rare, but is long remembered. It will be fufficient, therefore, and all that can be expected in this place, to give a brief account of those few ingenious and useful men who were the chief instruments of the revival of polite learning and good taste in Britain in our present period, from which we derive so many innocent and rational pleasures, as well as other advantages.

Erafmus.

Though Erafmus of Rotterdam was not a native of Britain, he refided feveral years in England at different times; and by his teaching, his conversation, and his writings, he contributed as much, if not more, than any other man, to inspire a taste for the study of the Roman and Greek classics, which was the first stage in the restoration of learning. He was born at Rotterdam, A.D. 1467., and educated at an illustrious school in Daventer, where be began to display that extraordinary genius, and that ardent love of learning, which afterwards rendered him fo famous and fo ufeful. Having loft both his parents when he was only in his thirteenth year, his three unfaithful guardians conspired to make him a monk, that they might poffes themselves of his patrimony. His aversion to that way of life was strong, and he long refifted all the means that were used to prevail upon him to embrace it. At length, however, he was overcome; and in the nineteenth year of his age he made his profession, in a convent of regular canons, with extreme reluctance. He was not long immured in his monaftery.

naftery. The genius of young Erasmus, and his aversion to the way of life he had reluctantly embraced, were not unknown to many; and at length Henry a Bergis, Archbishop of Cambray, took him out of his confinement into his own family when he was about twenty-three years of age. He continued to wear the habit of his order for fome time, and was ordained a prieft two years after he left his monastery, to which he was determined never to return; and, by the influence of the Pope's fecretary, to whom he wrote a most eloquent and pathetic letter, he obtained a breve from Julius II. releasing him from his monaftic vows and habit. Being now at liberty, he applied with ardour to his studies, and visited France, Italy, and England, to communicate and to increase his knowledge. In all these countries he was well received, and even courted, by perfons of the highest rank and greatest merit, who folicited his friendship, and were proud of being numbered among his patrons. Attempts were every where made to retain him, by the offer of comfortable stations, and the promise of more fplendid establishments. But he preferred liberty to everything, and would accept of no preferment that laid him under the leaft restraint. For several years he led a wandering unfettled life, depending for his fublistence on the pensions of his patrons, the occasional gifts of his friends, and the money he received from his pupils. As he was a bad œconomist, and his income was precarious, he was sometimes reduced to straits, and forced to make complaints. " If I could get money," faid he,

in a letter to one of his friends, " I would first " purchase Greek books, and secondly cloaths." Few scholars would observe the same order. On the accession of Henry VIII., a young, rich, and generous prince, he was invited by his friend William Lord Mountjoy to come once more into England, and encouraged to entertain the most fanguine hopes. He complied with the invitation, and met with the most flattering reception, which afforded the fairest prospects. " The King "himfelf," fays he, " a little before his father's " death, when I was in Italy, wrote me with his " own hand a very friendly letter, and he now " fpeaks of me in the most honourable and af-" fectionate manner. Every time that I falute " him he embraces me most obligingly, and looks "kindly upon me; and it plainly appears that he " not only speaks but thinks well of me. The Queen hath endeavoured to have me for her " preceptor. Every one knows, that if I would " but live a few months at court, the King would "give me as many benefices as I could defire." But I esteem all things less than the leisure " which I enjoy, and the labours and studies in which I am occupied. The Archbishop of Can-" terbury, primate of England and chancellor " of the kingdom, a learned and worthy man, " loves me as though he were my father or my "brother; and to shew you the sincerity of his " friendship, he hath given me a living worth " about a hundred nobles, which, at my request, " he hath fince changed into a pension of a huner dred crowns on my refignation. Within these few years he hath given me more than four hun"dred nobles without my asking. One day he " gave me an hundred and fifty. From the libe-" rality of other bishops I have received more than " an hundred. Lord Mountjoy, who was former-" ly my disciple, gives me a yearly pension of an " hundred crowns. The King and the Bishop of " Lincoln, [Wolfey,] who by the King's favour " is omnipotent, make me magnificent promifes." But all these magnificent promises came to nothing, and none of them were performed. The cause of this is not certainly known: but it disgusted Erasmus so much, that after a long residence of about five years, he left England in difcontent, A.D. 1516., and never could be prevailed upon to return. During that refidence he contributed very much to diffuse and cherish a taste for the fludy of the Latin and Greek claffics, and of other useful learning. As the subsequent events of this great man's life do not properly come within our plan, the reader must be referred to the works quoted below for a full account of them, and of his many learned, instructive, and entertaining publications, where he will also find the authorities for what is above related 301. Not to leave this article quite imperfect, it may be proper to mention a few particulars. Soon after Erasmus fettled on the continent, Luther began his opposition to the church of Rome; and when the contest became ferious and important, both parties endeavoured to engage him to espouse their cause. No man was more fenfible of the corruptions of the church, or more fincerely wished for their reform-

³⁰¹ Knights', Bayle's, Le Clerc's, and Jortin's Lives of Erasmus. Du Pin, cent.xvi. b. 3.

ation, which he flattered himself might be brought about by the gentle method of remonstrances, arguments, and perfuafions. Being naturally timid, he was terrified at the violence he observed on both fides. He had not courage to join the reformers, who he believed would be crushed by the fuperior power of their adverfaries. His fincerity would not fuffer him to appear in defence of errors and abfurdities which he detefted and despised. This referve was offensive to both parties, who attacked him in many publications; almost with equal severity. This led him, in the last years of his life, to spend too much of his time in repelling these attacks. At length this most eminent of the reftorers of learning to whofe works millions have been indebted for entertainment and inftruction, worn out with unremitting study, and a complication of diseases. died at Basil, a Protestant city, in the arms of his Protestant friends, July 12., A.D. 1536., in the fixty-ninth year of his age. In his person he was rather below the middle stature, elegantly but delicately formed, his complexion fair, his hair vellow, his eyes grey, his countenance cheerful, his voice low, his elocution agreeable, and his conversation exceedingly pleasant and facetious. He was a warm and steady friend and a placable enemy, humane and charitable to the indigent, and to young scholars of whom he entertained a good opinion he was liberal and munificent. His reading was extensive, and his memory retentive almost to a miracle. To him the world owes the revival of the belles lettres, of critical

critical learning, and of a good tafte. In a word, he was at once the greatest wit and the most learned man of the age in which he flourished. 302

Sir Thomas More, Lord Chancellor of Eng- Sir Tholand, the great friend and admirer of Erafmus, mas More. was, next to him, one of the most ingenious and learned men of his age, and one of the chief reflorers of learning. He was born in London A.D. 1480; and being the only fon of Sir John More, one of the judges of the King's Bench, great pains were taken in his education, which he received partly at Cambridge, and partly in the family of Cardinal Morton, Archbishop of Canterbury. He gave early and ftriking proofs of an uncommon genius; and before he was nineteen years of age he had acquired a critical knowledge of the Latin and Greek languages, and had fludied rhetoric and feveral other branches of learning. When he was about twenty, he became a kind of devotee, fasted frequently, wore a hair shirt, slept upon boards, and had a great inclination to enter into the Franciscan order. From this, however, he was diverted by his friends; and in obedience to the commands of his father, whom he never difobeyed, he applied to the fludy of the law. When he was called to the bar, he foon became confpicuous by the eloquence of his pleadings, and was retained in almost every cause of importance. At the age of twenty-one he made a distinguished figure as a member of the house of commons, in opposition to the court, when opposition was more dangerous than it hath been in later times.

²⁰² Beatus Rhrinanus, vita Erasmi.

In particular, he opposed a bill that was brought into the house, A.D. 1503., for a subsidy and three fifteenths, for the marriage of the Princess Margaret to the King of Scots, with fuch force of reasoning that it was rejected. At the accesfion of Henry VIII. Mr. More's reputation and bufiness were both very great. But in the midst of the greatest hurry of business, in which the whole day was occupied, he stole time from his sleep to pursue his favourite studies, to correspond with many learned men at home and abroad, and to compose his Utopia, which was published A. D. 1516. It was univerfally admired, translated into feveral languages, and raifed his reputation not a little. Soon after this, Cardinal Wolfey cast his eyes upon him as a proper person to be employed in the fervice of the crown, and made him propofals for that purpofe, which he at first declined; but afterwards complying, he was knighted, admitted a member of the privy council, appointed mafter of requests, and treasurer of the exchequer, A.D. 1520. He was employed in feveral embaffies, in which he acquitted himself with ability and success. When Henry VIII. became intimately acquainted with him, he was fo charmed with his learning and the pleasantry of his conversation, that he fent frequently for him to entertain and divert him. This was very difagreeable to Sir Thomas, as it confumed too much of his time; and he made use of a ftratagem to get rid of this royal interruption which few would have employed. He affected to be very dull and unentertaining feveral times fuc-

fuccessively, and was no more fent for; facrificing the reputation of a wit and the conversation of a king to fave his time. Though he was now a courtier and a placeman, he was still a patriot, and boldly opposed the measures of the favourite minister when he thought them wrong. Of this he gave a remarkable proof when he was fpeaker of the house of commons A. D. 1523., which hath been already related 303. He had the office of chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster A.D. 1526., and he probably retained it till he was advanced to a higher. At length, on the fall of Cardinal Wolfey, the King fixed upon Sir Thomas More as the most proper person to succeed him as lord chancellor of England; and he was the first layman that held that high office. The feals were delivered to him October 25th, A.D. 1530., and he accepted of them with real reluctance, for which he had good reason. The affair of the divorce, which he disapproved, was then in agitation; he knew the impetuous spirit of the King, that he would not hefitate one moment to facrifice those who had been most dear to him, when they obstructed the gratification of a reigning passion; and he justly apprehended that holding so high an office in these circumstances would involve him in difficulties and dangers. He held this office about two years and feven months, and discharged the duties of it with great ability, integrity, and diligence. The reformers indeed complained, that when he was in power he encouraged and affifted the clergy in all their cru-

elties to those who were called heretics; and they give fome examples of this that are truly flocking 304. These complaints were probably exaggerated, but they were not altogether without foundation. Sir Thomas More, with all his great and good qualities, had also great defects. It appears from his own words, that he was devoted to the Pope and clergy in all things, and that his hatred to those who disputed any of their claims, or any of the tenets of the church, was excessive and inveterate; in a word, that he was a superstitious bigot; and there is nothing so apt to pervert the best natures, and prompt them to the worst actions, as superstition and bigotry. He refigned the feals May 16th, A.D. 1533., to avoid the ftorm which he faw approaching. By the refignation of his office he was reduced at once from opulence to an income of about 100l. a-year. This obliged him to part with his three daughters, their husbands and families, who had all hitherto refided with him, and to difmifs his unnecessary fervants. Determined never to engage in public bufinefs, he lived with great privacy at his house in Chelsea, spending most of his time in his studies and devotions. But he was not long permitted to enjoy this privacy. The act of supremacy passed A.D. 1534., and the oath enjoined by that act being tendered to him, he refused to take it, and he was sent prisoner to the Tower. While he lay in the Tower, many endeavours were used by his friends to prevailupon him to take the oath; and when arguments failed to

Fox, p. 976. Strype's Memorials, vol. i. p. 201, &c. perfuade.

perfuade, both threats and promifes were employed: but he remained inflexible. An account of his trial and execution hath been already given, and needs not be repeated; and for a more circumftantial relation of his actions, his writings, his manners, his virtues, and his failings, than the nature and limits of this work will admit, the reader is referred to the works quoted below 305.

If the exact order of time had been observed, William William Grocyn would have been first introduced, as he was in that respect one of the first restorers of learning in England. He was born in Briftol A.D. 1442., educated in grammar at Winchester fchool, made perpetual fellow of New College A.D. 1467., and prefented by that college, A.D. 1479., to the rectory of Newton Longvile in Buckinghamshire. His love of study made him ftill refide at Oxford, where he was appointed divinity reader in Magdalen College A. D. 1483. Having a very ftrong defire to acquire a perfect knowledge of the Greek language, which was then almost quite unknown in England, he left his country A.D. 1488., in the forty-fixth year of his age, and travelled into Italy. There, in company with feveral of his countrymen who had come for the same purpose, he studied Latin under Angelo Politian, and Greek under Demetrius Chalcondylas, one of those learned men who had fled from Constantinople when it was taken by the Turks. Under these two excellent inftructors he made himfelf a mafter of those lan-

³⁰⁵ Roper's Life and Death of Thomas More. Stapleton, vita T. Mori. Hoddendsden's Life and Death of Sir T. More. Biographia Britannica, article Sir T. More.

guages in about two years, and returned into England to communicate the knowledge he had acquired. He taught Greek publicly at Oxford A. D. 1591., and was the first who introduced the new pronunciation of that language. He had the famous Erasmus for one of his hearers, with whom he contracted an intimate friendship, and kept him a confiderable time in his house. When he left Oxford he came to London, and read lectures on divinity in St. Paul's. He refigned the rectory of Dipden A.D. 1503., and of Newton Longvile the year after; for what reason we do not know. He was elected, A.D. 1506., mafter of the collegiate church of Maidstonein Kent, where he died A.D. 1522., in the eightieth year of his age. Grocyn's reigning passion was the love of learning, particularly of the Greek, and to inspire his countrymen with the same taste. Some years before his death he formed the defign of giving a correct and elegant Latin translation of all Aristotle's works; in which he was promifed the affiftance of his learned friends Linacer, Latimer, Lily, Collet, and More. But the avocations of his friends, and his own infirmities, prevented the accomplishment of that defign.306

Doctor. Linacer. Doctor Thomas Linacre, or Linacer, one of the great revivers of learning, and the most polite and elegant scholar of his age, was born at Canterbury A.D. 1460., and educated in the cathedral school of that city, under the learned Mr. William Tilly, who was not a mere school-

³⁰⁶ A. Wood, Athen. Oxon. Tanner, Bibliotheca Britan. p. 345.
mafter,

mafter, but a man of business, and an able negotiator. Being appointed by Henry VII. his ambaffador at the court of Rome, he carried his favourite pupil Linacre with him, and introduced him to the most famous professors then in Italy, where he fpent feveral years in the fludy of belles lettres and of medicine. He acquired a perfect knowledge of the Greek under Chalcondylas, and he even excelled his mafter Politian in the claffical purity of his Latin ftyle. His proficiency in medicine was fo conspicuous, that he was appointed a professor of it in the university of Padua 307. On his return home, he was incorporated doctor of physic at Oxford, and soon after he was appointed physician and preceptor to Prince Arthur and his fifter Mary. He came into great practice, and was fuccessively physician to Henry VII. and Henry VIII. To shew his love to his profession, he founded two lectures of physic at Oxford and one at Cambridge. He contributed more effectually to refcue the healing arts from the wretched flate in which he found them, by his strenuous and successful efforts for the establishment of the royal college of phyficians in London, of which he was the first president, and to which he gave his own house for their place of meeting. In the midst of all this business he did not neglect his favourite studies; and his friend Erasmus often rallied him for fpending fo much of his time in the study of philology. On this subject he wrote the Rudiments of Grammar, for the use of his pupil the

307 Tanner, Bibliotheca Britan. p. 482.

Princes

Princess Mary, afterwards Queen of France; and a much larger work, De emandata Structura Latini Sermonis, libri fex, which was much admired, and passed through many editions. For the benefit of those of his own profession he translated feveral of Galen's tracts into pure and classical Latin, and in fo mafterly a manner, that they had the appearance of an original work. When he was advanced in life he applied to the fludy of theology, was ordained a prieft, and obtained feveral livings and preferments in the church. He died of the stone, October 20th, A. D. 1524. at the age of fixty-four, and was buried in St. Paul's, where a monument was erected to his memory thirty years after, by his great admirer, Doctor John Caius. If we may rely on the character given to Doctor Linacre, by his learned contemporaries who were most intimately acquainted with him, his genius for learning was not his greateft excellence, and his virtues were at least equal to his abilities; in a word, that he was a benefactor to mankind, an honour to literature, and an ornament to human nature 308. Should fuch men ever be forgotten?

Doctor Collet. Doctor John Collet was one of those ingenious men who contributed by their united labours to the revival of learning in Britain in this period. He was the first-born of the eleven sons and eleven daughters of Sir Henry Collet (who was twice mayor of London) by his wife Christian, and was

³⁷⁸ See A. Wood, Athen. Oxon. vol. i. col. 15. Pits, p. 693. Dr. Friend's Hift. Phys. vol. ii. p. 400, &c. Tanner, p. 482. Biograph. Britan.

born in London, A. D. 1466. After he had received the first part of his education in his native city, he spent seven years at Oxford in the fludy of the logic and philosophy of those times. Not fatisfied with the acquifitions he had made at home, he travelled into France and Italy, and fpent about four years in those two countries, where he perfected himself in the Latin and Greeklanguages, and cultivated the acquaintance and friendship of the learned. He entered very early into holy orders, and before he went abroad he had been presented to two livings, and before he returned home he was preferred to a prebendary in York, and to another in St. Martin's-le-Grand, London. When he returned into England he was not only an excellent scholar, but an accomplished gentleman; and being naturally high-spirited, amorous, gay, and sprightly, he feemed fitter for the court than the church. But having a lively fense of the obligations of virtue and religion, and an ardent love of learning, he fubdued those propensities which might have betrayed him into a course of life unbecoming his profession, and became as conspicuous for the purity as the politeness of his manners. In Italy he had applied to the study of theology, had perused the New Testament in the original with care, and had read the works of feveral of the Greek and Latin fathers. After he had flayed a few months in London with his friends and family, he went to Oxford, and read a course of lectures on St. Paul's Epiftles, which were received with great applause by crowded audiences.

By the influence of his numerous friends, without any folicitation of his own, he was promoted to feveral prebendaries in different churches, and to the deanry of St. Paul's, A. D. 1505. Of this last office he discharged the duties with uncommon zeal, by introducing a more strict and regular discipline; by his preaching in the cathedral every Sunday; and by procuring fome of his learned friends to read lectures in divinity there on other days. In his fermons on public occasions he censured with great freedom the ignorance and vices of the clergy and the corruptions of the church, which drew upon him a profecution for herefy, to which he would probably have fallen a facrifice, if he had not been preferved by the primate, who put a stop to the profecution. He had been three times feized with that terrible plague the fweating fickness, which threw him into a confumption, of which he died, September 16th, A. D. 1519., in the fifty-third year of his age. As Doctor Collet possessed a plentiful fortune and generous heart, many were benefited by his bounty. His noble foundation of St. Paul's school will be hereafter mentioned. He made many presents to his friend Erasmus, and to other scholars who stood in need of his affiftance. He composed much, but published little. Several treatifes that were found in an obscure corner of his library were published after his death, and some are still unpublished. In his person he was tall and handfome, in his deportment graceful and engaging, in his manners he was regular without aufterity, and

and his preaching was plain and popular. He faw and condemned many of the corruptions of the church, particularly the celibacy of the clergy, auricular confession, the worship of images, and other fuperstitions. Like his friend Erasmus, he entertained several of the opinions of the reformed before the Reformation, and by his preaching and converfation, he prepared the minds of many for their reception. 309 William Lily was another of those ingenious william

and industrious men who were the instruments Lily. of reviving learning in Britain, by introducing the study of the Greek and Latin classics. was born at Odiham the same year (1466.) with his great friend and patron Doctor Collet. When he had finished his school education he went to Oxford, and became a student in Magdalen College. But his flay at the university was not long. Prompted by the reigning fuperstition of the times he set out on a pilgrimage to Jerufalem, which he accomplished. On his journey home he refided five years in the island of Rhodes; and with the affiftance of some learned refugees from Conftantinople, he acquired a perfect knowledge of the Greek tongue. From thence he went to Rome, and perfected himfelf in the Latin language under two of the most celebrated profesfors in that city. On his return to England he opened a fchool in London for teaching rhetoric, poetry, and the Greek and Latin languages, which foon became famous. When Dean

309 See Doctor Knight's Life of Dean Collet. Tanner, p. 189. Erasmi Epistola Jodoco Jonæ.

Collet

Collet had built and endowed his school at St. Paul's, he appointed his friend Mr. Lily its first mafter A. D. 1511., who prefided in it about twelve years with great reputation and fuccess. Among other things he composed a grammar for the use of that school, which is well known by the name of Lily's Grammar in all the schools in England. In this, however, he was affifted by Erafmus, Doctor Collet, and Thomas Robinson, three of the best linguists in Europe; and it was published with a preface composed by the great Cardinal Wolfey, recommending it to univerfal ufe. Of fuch importance did the education of youth in classical learning appear to the greatest men of that age! He composed many other tracts both in profe and verse. This most useful man died of the plague A. D. 1523. 310

Richard Paice.

CALL OF

Richard Paice cultivated the belles lettres with great ardour and fuccefs, and contributed to introduce a tase for that kind of learning into England. He was born of poor parents in Worcestershire, and was taken when he was very young into the family of Thomas Langton Bishop of Worcester. That prelate observing the ingenuity of young Paice, became his friend and patron, and fent him to Italy, then the feat of polite learning, with a proper exhibition; and in his last will he bequeathed to his scholar Richard Paice 10l. a year (equivalent to 100l. of our money at prefent) for feven years, to enable him to pursue his studies abroad. Supported by this exhibition, he fludied feveral

years at Padua, Bononia, and Ferrara, where he acquired a critical knowledge of the Greek and Latin languages, and a tincture of other learning. On his return home he refided fome time at Oxford for his further improvement, and was then taken into the family of Cardinal Bainbridge Archbishop of York, whence he was called to the court, and appointed Latin fecretary to Henry VIII. Being in priest's orders, he obtained feveral prebends in different churches, and in October A. D. 1519. he fucceeded Doctor Collet in the deanry of St. Paul's. While he was fecretary to the King he was employed in feveral embaffies, in which he acquitted himfelf with great ability and fuccess: In his last embasy to the republic of Venice, A. D. 1525., he was seized with a diforder for which the physicians were of opinion his native air would be the only cure; and at his departure the Doge fent a letter to the Cardinal, highly commending the ambaffador for hisability, fidelity, and diligence, which concludes thus: " Finally, I affure your most reverend domination, " that the reverend lord ambassador hath been " most faithful and most diligent in all the affairs " of His royal Majesty, and that he hath been " most attentive and most studious to please your " most reverend domination 311." But alas! how precarious is court favour! Having in some way or other offended the Cardinal, he was fent prifoner to the Tower; with which he was fo much affected that he became infane, and died in that condition A. D. 1532. He appears to have been

a worthy man, as well as an excellent scholar, as he lived in the most intimate friendship with Erasmus, More, Tonstal, Linacre, Collet, and other eminent men, both at home and abroad. He learned languages with peculiar facility, and not only fpoke feveral of the modern languages, but understood Latin, Greek, Hebrew, Chaldaic, and Arabic. Though he was much engaged in public employment, he wrote many treatifes on theological, political, and other fubjects. One of the most curious of these is his tract De fructu qui ex Doctrina percipitur — " Of the " benefits that are derived from Learning." 312

It is pleafant to remark, that all these restorers of learning in this period were virtuous men and fincere friends; that they co-operated most cordially in promoting the objects they had in view; affifted each other in their labours, and in repelling the attacks that were made upon any of them; and that they advanced the fame of one another by mutual and well-founded com-This reflected honour on literamendations. ture, and contributed not a little to the fuccess of their efforts for its restoration. Emulation is indeed a fpur to industry and exertion, and may exist among the fincerest friends; but when it is accompanied and excited by envy and malevolence, it brings reproach upon learning, gives a wrong direction to industry, and renders it rather hurtful than beneficial to fociety. The wife and virtuous, in their sharpest conflicts, will guard against rancour and asperity.

Several other men of learning and genius flourished in England at this period; as Cranmer Archbishop of Canterbury, Tonstal Bishop of Durham, Sir John Cheke, John Leland, &c. &c.

A taste for the study of polite learning, or the Scotland.

belles lettres, revived in Scotland about the same time that it revived in England; and this tafte was cherished by government, and even enforced by law. By an act of parliament already quoted, every freeholder of fubstance was obliged to keep his eldest son at some grammar school till he had acquired a perfect knowledge of the Latin language, and then to put him three years to some university to study philosophy and the laws. In confequence of this prevailing tafte, a competency at least of learning became gradually more general among the gentlemen, and even among the common people of Scotland, than in any other country of Europe; and feveral ingenious men in this period became eminent for their classical erudition. But of these our limits will permit us only to mention a very few.

Gavin Douglas, Bishop of Dunkeld, was not only one of the greatest poets, but also one of the best scholars and most amiable men of his age. He was the third fon of Archibald, commonly called Bell the Cat, fixth Earl of Angus, and uncle to Archibald the feventh Earl, who married Margaret Queen-dowager of Scotland, the eldest fister of Henry VIII. 313 He was born about 1472., and having early discovered a taste

³¹³ Hume's Hiftory of the Douglasses, p. 219.

for learning, he was deftined for the church, in which, from the power and influence of his family, he had a prospect of the highest promotions. He received the first part of his education at home, and when he had gone through a course of philosophy in the university of St. Andrew's, he went to Paris for his further improvement. There he fpent feveral years in fludy, and acquired an uncommon flock of knowledge of various kinds, though he delighted most in poetry and the belles lettres. On his return to Scotland he was promoted to the provoftry of St. Giles in Edinburgh, and to feveral other livings, and among others to the rich abbey of Arbroath. He enjoyed little comfort in this promotion, owing to the troubles in which his country was involved in the minority of James V. He was prefented by the Queen-regent to the Archbishopric of St. Andrew's; but he had two formidable competitors, John Hepburn the prior, elected by the chapter, and Andrew Foreman Bishop of Moray, nominated by the Pope; and he foon relinquished his claim, and left the other two to contend for the prize. Apprehensive of danger in his own country, from the violence of faction, he obtained a fafe-conduct for himfelf and thirty persons in his company, to come into England, from Henry VIII. January 23d, A. D. 1515. 314 But he did not make use of that safe-conduct: for the bishopric of Dunkeld becoming vacant, he obtained it by a bull from Leo X., and was confecrated by James Beaton, Archbishop

of Glafgow, the fame year. But as he owed his promotion to a papal bull, he was imprisoned by the Duke of Albany a whole year for trafficking with Rome. This was a fevere and partial act. The primate Archbishop Foreman had been promoted only a few months before in the fame manner without incurring any censure. This feverity to fo near a relation and fo good a man, fo much alarmed the Queen and her husband the Earl of Angus, that they retired into England. The Earl after fome time was prevailed upon to return, and his uncle was fet at liberty. When the Duke of Albany returned to France A. D. 1517., he carried the Bishop of Dunkeld with him, under a pretence of doing him honour, but in reality as a hostage for the good behaviour of his nephew and his friends in his abfence. The Bishop was permitted to return home the year after with the ratification of the ance nt alliance between France and Scotland. In the fierce contest that ensued between the Hamiltons and Douglasses, our good prelate acted the part of a peace-maker with great zeal, but without fuccess: and after the defeat of the Hamiltons in the streets of Edinburgh, he saved the life of the Archbishop of Glasgow, who had acted the part of an incendiary. When the Duke of Albany returned to Scotland A. D. 1521., the perfecution of the Douglasses was renewed, and our prelate retired privately into England to avoid the ftorm, and to prepare an afylum for his friends. As foon as his retreat was known, all his goods were confifcated, and VOL. XII.

the revenues of his fee fequestered 315. He met with a most kind reception from Henry VIII., and was carefled by all the most eminent persons in the court of England. In the mean time the archbishopric of St. Andrew's became vacant, and Henry exerted all his influence at the court of Rome to procure the promotion of the Bishop of Dunkeld to that fee. His competitor, the Archbishop of Glasgow, (whose life he had lately faved,) wrote to Christian King of Denmark, earnestly intreating him to counteract the interest of the King of England at the court of Rome with all his might, and giving his rival a most odious character, as a rebel to his king and an enemy to his country 316. But a superior power put an end to this contest. The Bishop of Dunkeld died of the plague at London in April A. D. 1522. 317 As the works of this learned and excellent but unfortunate prelate, which do fo much honour to his name and country, were poetical, they come most properly into the history of poetry, in the next chapter of this book.

Patrick Panter. Patrick Panter, Latin fecretary to King James IV., was one of those who, by applying with peculiar ardour to the acquisition of classical learning, and the imitation of the writers of the Augustanage, contributed to introduce a better taste, and to give a better direction to the studies of their countrymen, than that which had long prevailed. He was born in the town of Montrose about A.D. 1470.; and having gone through a course of edu-

cation

Buchan, lib.xiv. Lefly, lib. ix. Spottifwoode, Tanner, Bale.

cation at home, he went to Paris, (as was then the cuftom,) where he fpent feveral years in the profecution of his studies. On his return to Scotland he entered into holy orders, became rector of Fetterrisso in the Mearns, master of Domus Dei in Brechin, and preceptor to Alexander Stewart the King's natural fon. In that office he acquitted himself so well, that when his pupil was put under the care of the great Erasmus about A. D. 1505., his royal mafter rewarded him with the abbacy of Cambulkenneth, and took him into his own fervice as his fecretary; a station for which he was peculiarly fitted, and in which he did honour to his King, his country, and himfelf, by the elegance and classical purity of the language of his dispatches 318. In that office he continued during the King's life and the regency of the Queen. As he was attached to the party of the Queen and her fecond husband the Earl of Angus, he was reprefented as a dangerous man to the Duke of Albany, who, on some pretence or other, threw him into prison. But when that prince was better informed of his worth and abilities, he released him from prison, restored him to his office, and carried him with him into France. There he fell into a lingering difeafe, of which he died at Paris A. D. 1519. 319

Hector Boethius, or Boyce, was a native of Boethius. Dundee, and born about A. D. 1466. After he had finished a course of education in the university of St. Andrew's, he went to Paris, where he

Præfat. Epiftolæ Regum Scotorum.

³¹⁸ See Epistolæ Regum Scotorum, Edinburgi 1722.

fludied feveral years in the college of Montacute, in which he was advanced to a professor's chair. On his return to Scotland he was appointed principal of the newly-founded university of Aberdeen, and had fome other preferments in the church. When herefided in France he contracted a friendship with Erasmus, by whom he was much esteemed and commended, for his taste, his learning, and other good qualities. He composed feveral treatifes upon various fubjects; but his principal work was-Historia rerum Scoticarum a prima gentis origine ad A. D. 1436 .- " A Hif-" tory of the Scots from the Origin of the Na-"tion to the Year 1436." It is with the style of this work only that we are here concerned, and that hath been highly admired, and affords a fufficient proof of his good tafte and claffical erudition, which entitles him to be ranked among the reftorers of learning. 320

An account of feveral other writers who flourished in Scotland in this period, and contributed in some degree to the revival of learning, might be here inserted; butthis would exceed our limits, and too many readers of general history would appear tedious. It is sufficient to remark, that the youth of Scotland at this time, in proportion to their numbers, discovered as good a taste, and as great a thirst for knowledge, as those of England, though they laboured under some disadvantages; particularly many of them not finding proper establishments at home, were obliged to seek for them in foreign countries. The history of John

³²⁰ Nicolfon's Scots Hift. Tanner, Bale, Dempster.

Lefley Bishop of Ross, and of his great opponent in politics Mr. George Buchannan, belongs to the succeeding period.

SECTION III.

History of the principal Seminaries of Learning that were founded in Great Britain from A. D. 1485. to A. D. 1547.

THOUGH many superb and richly endowed schools and colleges for the education of youth and encouragement of learning had been already established in Britain, particularly in England, their numbers and riches still continued to increase. In our present period of only sixty-two years, three colleges were founded in Oxford and five in Cambridge, and the two illustrious schools of Ipswich and St. Paul's. In Scotland a new university was founded at Aberdeen, and a new college in St. Andrew's. Of all which foundations and their founders a very brief account shall now be given.

Brazen-nofe College in Oxford was founded on the fite of Brazen-nofe-hall (from which it derived its name) by William Smith Bishop of Lincoln, and Sir Richard Sutton of Presbury in Cheshire. These two founders having purchased certain contiguous halls, houses, and gardens, in Oxford, obtained a charter from Henry VIII. A. D. 1511., authorising them to build their intended college, and to purchase and endow it with lands to the value of 300l.

a-year. The buildings were then begun, but Bishop Smith, one of the founders, died before they were finished. The foundation-charter for the college, to confift of a principal, twelve fellows, and fixty fcholars, was executed by Sir Richard Sutton, the furviving founder, February 1st, A. D. 1521. The revenues of this college, as well as those of all the other colleges in Oxford, were very much increased by a succession of benefactors. 321

Corpus Christi College.

Richard Fox, fuccessively Bishop of Exeter, Bath, Durham, and Winchester, was the founder of Corpus Christi College in Oxford. This prelate acted an important part both in church and state in the reigns of Henry VII. and of Henry VIII. When he was profecuting his studies at Paris, he became acquainted with Cardinal Morton, (then in exile,) who prevailed upon him to join Henry Earl of Richmond in his expedition into England, A. D. 1485. He had no reason to repent of that step. The expedition was successful, the Earl mounted the throne, Doctor Fox was immediately admitted into the council, and appointed keeper of the privy feal. Few were more employed or better rewarded by Henry VII. in whose reign he was successively promoted to the fees of Exeter, Bath and Wells, Durham, and Winchefter. In his old age, he began to confider how he should dispose of the riches he had accumulated, and his first intention was to build a finall college in Oxford, to be a feminary for the education of the novices of the priory of St. Swith-

³²¹ A. Wood, Hift. Univers. Oxon. lib. ii. p. 212, &c.

in, his cathedral in Winchester. But when the building was far advanced, he was perfuaded by Hugh Oldham Bishop of Exeter, to change his plan, and to found a much larger college, for the benefit of studious youth in general, to which he promifed to become a benefactor. In compliance, with this advice, he founded, by a charter dated March 1st, A. D. 1517., a college for a principal and thirty scholars, to be called Corpus Christi College, in Oxford. He founded also three lectureships in the college; one for the belles lettres, of which John Ludovicus Vives was the first reader; one for the Greek language, and one for theology, Bishop Oldham performed his promise, by contributing 1000 marks to the buildings, and by the grant of an eftate. His example was followed by many other benefactors. 322

Cardinal Wolfey was one of those men whose Cardinal minds expand with their fortunes. Though his birth was humble, when he attained to power and opulence he displayed a most magnificent and princely spirit. Of this the noble plan he formed, and the fplendid extensive preparations he made, for founding a college in Oxford, which, for the magnificence of its structure, the richness of its furniture, the number of its members, and the greatness of its revenues, would have exceeded every feminary of learning in the world, afford a fufficient proof. To accomplish this, he obtained two bulls from Pope Clement VII. empowering him (with the King's confent) to diffolve the priory of St. Frideswade in Oxford, and as many

College.

other small religious houses as he thought proper, and to apply their revenues, lands, and goods to the endowment of his intended college 322. To the execution of these bulls the King gave his confent, and granted him a charter, dated July 3d. A. D. 1525. authorifing him to found a college in Oxford, to be called Cardinal College, and to endow it with lands and revenues to the amount of 2000l. a-year 323: a very great revenue in those times. The year after, the King granted the Cardinal for the benefit of his college no fewer than five charters, containing a great number of privileges and immunities, with a power of impropriating about feventy rectories, in addition to its revenues 324. The Cardinal have ing thus provided ample revenues for the members of his college, the foundation of it was laid July 15th, A.D. 1525.; and, as great numbers of artificers of all kinds were employed, the buildings advanced with great rapidity. As foon as apartments were ready for their reception, he introduced a dean and eighteen canons, which he defigned afterwards to increase to one hundred and eighty, or two hundred. In the mean-time he expended prodigious fums of money, not only on the buildings, but in providing statues, pictures, plate, jewels, books, vestments, furniture, and every thing that could be either ufeful or ornamental to his favourite establishment. He prepared also a book of statutes for its government; from which it appears that it was to have confifted

³²² Rym. tom. xiv. p. 15. 32. 323 Ibid. p. 39. 324 Ibid. p. 55-75. Strype, vol. i. Append. No. 28, 29.

of a dean, a fub-dean, fixty canons of the first class, forty canons of the fecond class, (who were all to devote themselves to study,) thirteen chaplains, twelve clerks, fixteen chorifters for performing the fervice in the college church, four cenfors, three treasurers, four collectors, and twenty fervants. In a word, the Cardinal neglected nothing to render his college (which he expected would transmit his name with honour to posterity) superior in all respects to every other college. But he neglected one thing, which proved fatal to the whole. Being under no apprehension of his difgrace, which fell upon him like a clap of thunder, he neglected to execute the foundation charter. and convey the revenues, lands, and goods to the college, which he had provided for it with fo much care. All thefe, therefore, being still his own property, when he was found in a premunire, they were forfeited to the King 325. The spoil was great, and it was seized with eagerness. The lands were fold, or granted to craving courtiers, and all the precious moveables diffipated. Thus fell Cardinal College before it was half finished, to the no small regret of the friends of learning; as it prevented the execution of a defign which the Cardinal had formed, of procuring copies of all the MSS. in the Vatican for the library of his college.

Afterall the works of Cardinal College had been College of interrupted about four years, and the unfinished Henry buildings tended to ruin, the King was prevailed upon to found a college in the fame place, to be

called the College of King Henry VIII. Butthough this was a royal foundation, it was on a much fmaller scale than that of the Cardinal; as it confifted only of a dean and twelve fecular canons. Nor was this college of much longer duration than the former. Doctor John Oliver, the fecond dean, refigned his college and all its revenues to the King May 20th, A.D. 1545.326

Christ's Church.

Henry having thus diffolved his own college. he foon after made it the feat and cathedral of the Bishop of Oxford, by the name of the Cathedral of Christ's Church in Oxford, founded by Henry VIII. This new fociety was composed of a bishop, a dean, and eight canons. dean and canons he granted all the buildings, lands, and revenues of his late college, on condition that they paid the following stipends to the following persons: to eight minor canons, each 10l.; to a gospeller, 8l.; to a postellator, 61. 13s. 4d.; to eight clerks, each 61. 13s. 4d.; to the mafter of the finging boys, 13l. 6s. 8d.; to the organist, 10l.; to eight finging boys, each 71. 13s. 4d.; to three public professors in the university, one of theology, one of Hebrew, and one of Greek, each 40l.; to fixty fcholars or fludents, each 81.; to the first schoolmaster, 201.; to the fecond schoolmaster, 101.; forty schoolboys. 327

The number of colleges founded in Cambridge in this period exceeds that of those founded in Oxford, if we reckon Cardinal College, the Col-

³²⁶ Wood, lib. ii. p. 251. Rym. tom. xiv. p. 443.

³²⁷ Wood, lib. ii. p. 246.

lege of Henry VIII., and Christ's Church, only one foundation.

The nuns of St. Radigund in Cambridge, had Jefus become so profligate that they were expelled, and their house, with its revenues and lands, (which were of confiderable value,) were granted by Henry VII. A.D. 1496., to John Alcock Bishop of Ely, who converted the nunnery into a college, for one mafter, fix fellows, and fix scholars, and dedicated it to Jesus, the Virgin Mary, and St. Radigund. The revenues of this college were afterwards increased by many benefactors, 328

The Lady Margaret Counters of Richmond, Christ's and mother to Henry VII., founded Christ's College. College in Cambridge A.D. 1505., for one mafter, twelve fellows, and forty-feven fcholars, and endowed it with lands of confiderable value in feveral counties, 329

College.

The fame illustrious lady founded St. John's St. John's College in this university A. D. 1508., but did not live to fee it finished; the works however were carried on and completed by her executors. Several of the estates that had been granted to this college, to the amount of 400l. a-year, were evicted from it in the reign of Edward VI., whether juftly or unjuftly cannot now be discovered, though Mr. Ascham affirms it was owing to the rapacity of greedy courtiers 330. This lofs, however, was repaired by a long train of forty-eight benefactors, which en-

³²⁸ Fuller's Hift. Univer, Camb. p. 85. 39 Ibid. p.90.

³³⁰ Ibid. p. 94.

abled this foundation to support a master, fifty-four fellows, and eighty-eight scholars, with officers and servants.

Maudlin College. Edward Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, one of the greatest subjects in England, designed to have enlarged the buildings and revenues of an old house called Monk's College, and to have given it the name of Buckingham college. But before he had proceeded far in the execution of this design, he was tried, condemned, and executed for high treason May 17th, A.D. 1521. After the buildings had been several years suspended, Thomas Lord Audley, Chancellor of England, sounded and endowed a college on the same site, which he named Magdalen, commonly called Maudlin College. 331

Trinity College.

Henry VIII. having got possession of three adjacenthalls, razed them to the ground, and erected on the area, and richly endowed, a large, regular, and magnificent college A. D. 1536., dedicated to the holy and undivided Trinity, and thence called Trinity College. Great additions have been made to the revenues of this college by subsequent benefactors, which have rendered it one of the greatest, richest, and most noble foundations of the kind in Europe. Henry at the same time sounded sour professorships in Cambridge; one of theology, one of law, one of Hebrew, and one of Greek; with each a salary of 40l. a year. 332

Though the universities of Scotland are not to be compared with those of England, for the

³³¹ Fuller's Hift. Univer. Camb. p. 121.

³³² Ibid. p. 122. 124.

number of their colleges, their magnificence, and the greatness of their revenues; yet they feem, in some respect, to have advantages, of which I shall only mention one at present. Being four in number, and fituated in different cities of the kingdom, they are better known and more acceffible. Every one knows that there is an university at no great distance from him, and that he may give his fon an univerfity education without fending him far from home. In confequence of this, a tineture of learning at leaft is very general in Scotland, where there are no clergymen, and very few gentlemen, who have not had an university education.

With a view to this particular advantage, James IV. applied to Pope Alexander VI. to give his fanction to the establishment of an university in his city of Aberdeen, for the accommodation of the people of the northern and highland parts of his dominions, who, being at a great diftance from the feats of learning, were more rude and ignorant than his other fubjects. In compliance with this application, the Pope (without whom nothing could be done in those times) issued a bull at Rome February 10th, A. D. 1494., erecting an university in the city of Old Aberdeen, for the study of theology, civil and canon law, medicine, the liberal arts and sciences, and all lawful faculties, and granting it all the immunities, rights, and privileges enjoyed by any other university or general fludy. By this bull of erection, the Pope appointed William Elphingston, Bishop of Aber-100

deen, (who was the real founder,) to be chancellor of the new university, and his succesfors in the fee of Aberdeen to fucceed him in that office. The bull was confirmed by a charter A.D. 1498.; in which the King appropriated the parish church of Slains, with its tithes and patronage, which received, by a fubfequent bull A.D. 1500., an extensive and independent jurifdiction both in ecclefiaftical and temporal queftions. The first foundation was established by the Bishop in 1505., and contained thirty-fix persons; a principal, canonist, civilian, a professor of medicine, a sub-principal, and grammarian, five mafters of arts, fludying theology, and inftructing the scholars in poetry and rhetoric; thirteen fcholars, eight prebendaries to officiate as chaplains, and four finging-boys. But the Bishop was afterwards enabled to enlarge the foundation, by a more liberal endowment, for forty-two perfons; four doctors, eight mafters, and three bachelors of arts, thirteen fcholars, eight chaplains, and fix finging boys. The masters remained in the university fix years, fludying theology and teaching the arts; after which they obtained the degree of doctor, and removed from the university to make way for others. The experience of thirty-fix years discovered that a succession of new teachers was extremely inconvenient, and that the mafters difmiffed after fix years fludy were not always fufficiently qualified to be doctors of divinity. Another papal bull was therefore obtained A.D. 1538., permitting those that studied divinity to refide refide in the univerfity, and exercife their functions during the chancellor's pleasure, and till others were qualified and defirous to fucceed them.

A fecond college was founded in the univerfity of St. Andrew's in this period, by James Stewart, natural fon of James IV., the Archbishop, and John Hepburn the prior, and the chapter of St. Andrew's, called the College of Poor Clerks, or St. Leonard's College, from its vicinity to St. Leonard's church. It appears from the foundation-charter, that there had been an hospital in the same place, for the reception and entertainment of pilgrims of different nations, who crowded to St. Andrew's, to pay their devotions to the arm of St. Andrew, which wrought a great many miracles. At length, however, the faint's arm being tired with that laborious kind of work, or thinking he had done enough, the miracles and the conflux of pilgrims ceased, and the hospital was deferted. The prior and convent, who had been the founders and were the patrons of the hospital, then filled it with old women. these old women produced little or no fruit of virtue or devotion, and were turned out. The prior and convent having repaired the church and hospital of St. Leonard, resolved to convert them into a college, to confift of a master, or principal; four chaplains, two of which were to be regents; and twenty scholars, who were first to be taught the languages, and then the liberal arts and fciences; and fix of them who

were thought most sit, should then apply with great ardour and vehement reading to the study of theology under the principal. Such of these scholars as were found sittest for it were to be taught music, both plain song and descant. The foundation-charter to this purpose was executed by the archbishop, the prior, and chapter, at St. Andrew's, August 20th, A. D. 1512. By another charter the prior and chapter endowed this college with all the houses, lands, and revenues which had belonged to St. Leonard's hospital. Both these charters were confirmed by royal charter, dated at Edinburgh February 20th, A. D. 1513. 333

Nurferies for the education of youth, and preparing them for the universities, were not now wanting in any considerable town in Britain; and some very illustrious ones were found in this period; as St. Paul's school by Doctor Collet, Ipswich school by Cardinal Wolfey, Westminster school by Henry VIII., and many others, both in England and Scotland.

333 Ex Archiv. Univers. St. And.

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HISTORY

OF

GREAT BRITAIN.

BOOK VI.

CHAPTER V.

History of the Arts in Great Britain, from the Accession of Henry VII. A. D. 1485. to the Accession of Edward VI. A. D. 1547.

SECTION I.

History of the necessary and useful Arts.

ROM the accession of the Tudors, and the union or extinction of those factions that distracted England, a period of comparative tranquillity commences; a long period, protracted almost to the middle of the seventeenth century, during which the English nation was neither exhausted by its wars abroad, nor much disquieted vol. XII.

by domestic sedition. Such repose was propitious to arts and commerce; and the country, recovering from the calamities of internal discord, continued afterwards in a state of slow, but progressive improvement. A few years suffice to repair the disasters inslicted by war; but during the period allotted to the present volume, the effects of the civil wars were sometimes prolonged, after the causes from which they originated had ceased to operate.

Agriculture exchanged for pasturage.

. To the devastations produced by the civil wars may be justly attributed the decay of population, and in some measure the decrease and disappearance both of predial and domestic servitude. The bondsmen, so numerous formerly, were either confumed in battle, emancipated for their fervices, or enabled, by the frequent fluctuations of property, to regain their freedom. Proprietors were obliged to convert into pasturage those demesnes which their slaves and cottagers had formerly cultivated 334; and while the estates of either party were alternately wasted, it was foon discovered that flocks and herds were better adapted, than the produce of agriculture, to fuch troublesome times. They might be removed with ease on the irruption of an enemy, or difposed of secretly, if the proprietor were involved in the misfortunes of his party. A measure recommended by its expediency was generally adopted, and continued prevalent, when no neceffity required fuch precaution. When government, under Henry VII. and his fon, had attained

to stability, when its vigour repressed the depredations of the barons, and precluded the danger of a future revolution, the conversion of arable lands into pasture, increased through England to a dangerous extreme. Inclosures were multiplied. demesne lands were extended, till the farms of the husbandmen were appropriated to pasture: their houses were demolished or permitted to decay, while a few herdfmen, fewer than are ufually allotted to pasturage, supplanted the yeomen, and occupied, by means of inclosures, the largest estates 3.5. Landlords, it is probable, were still defirous of retaining the management of those lands, the culture of which they had formerly conducted by their villains or cottagers; and their tenants accustomed hitherto to the most moderate rents, were unwilling to fubmit to an unufual advance. But the circumstances most detrimental to agriculture may be discovered in the restrictions attending the exportation of grain. and the constant, perhaps the increasing consumption of English wool. At a former period, the exportation of corn had, in certain circumstances. been permitted, and its importation regulated by different statutes 330; but by these statutes a difcretionary control was committed to the King; and there is reason to believe that the operations of prerogative were feldom favourable, or exerted, unless for the purpose of partial monopolies and pernicious restraints. During the present

³³⁵ Bacon, p. 44. Hollingshed's Description of England, p. 205. Strype, vol. i. p. 392. Stowe, p. 512.
336 See vol. x. ch. 5. sect. 1. ch. 6.

period, the manufacture of cloth was encouraged and augmented, by the refinement of Europe in taste and dress; and although the manufactures of England were now considerable, those of the Netherlands were still supported by large exportations that increased the demand, and enhanced the value of English wool. A system of management, lucrative but pernicious, was thus promoted; lucrative to landholders, but pernicious to the country.

The system was severely feltinits consequences; in the beggary and diminished population of the peafants. Hamlets were ruined by oppreffive encroachments; townships and villages of an hundred families were reduced to thirty, fometimes to ten. Some were defolate, demolished by the avarice of unfeeling proprietors: others were occupied by a shepherd and his dog 337. These representations are transmitted by cotemporaries, and perhaps are exaggerated; yet a country appropriated to pasturage is thinly inhabited, and must be depopulated, by inclosures multiplied for the purpose of rearing sheep, and retrenching herdsmen. England, at a subsequent period, was regarded as better adapted for grazing than tillage; and in the reign of Elizabeth, the lands in culture were computed at a fourth of the kingdom 338; yet the legislature were never inattentive. but interposed repeatedly (with what success may be justly suspected) to enforce cultivation, and reprefs the inordinate increase of pastures.

⁴³⁷ Strype, vol. i. p. 392. Latimer's Sermons, p. 12. ⁴⁶⁸ Stowe, p. 2. Hollingfied. p. 108.

Early in Henry the Seventh's reign, a statute was enacted for the future support of those houses of husbandry, to which twenty acres had been formerly annexed; fanctioned by the forfeiture of half the rents, till the lands were occupied, and the houses rebuilt 330. Severe forfeitures are not eafily exacted; and it appears that a practice dictated by private gain, was neither suppressed by the vigilance of law, nor counteracted by the legal extortion of the monarch. A statute enacted under his fuccessor, expatiates in the preamble, with apparent truth, on the extent of the mifchief, and feelingly enumerates the complicated miseries which the increase of sheep, and extenfion of pastures, had inflicted on the poor 340. The flocks of individuals, which fometimes exceeded, and often amounted to twenty thousand sheep, were reftricted to two thousand; an inadequate remedy, frustrated apparently by the partial exception of hereditary opulence. Had the restraints imposed on the exportation of corn been transferred to wool, the internal confumption would have foon regulated the respective prices of those articles; the proportion between arable and pasture lands would soon have been adjusted, and the declining cultivation of the country prevented. An improved cultivation was referved, however, for a future period, when perfecutions extirpated manufactures from the Netherlands; when the exporation of English wool had fubfided, and its price diminished, the farmer or landholder, disappointed of his former exuber-

³³⁰ Stat. 4 Hen. VII. c. 19. Bacon, p. 44. 24 25 Hen. VIII. c. 12.

ant profits, discovered the necessity of resuming the plough, and again reftoring his pastures to culture.

State of Agriculture.

While hufbandry fuffered fuch general difcountenance, much improvement in its operations is not to be expected. A treatife of husbandry, afcribed to Fitzherbert, judge of the Common Pleas to Henry VIII., explains those operations chiefly practifed and most approved. The instruments were nearly the same with ours; and as they have continued, during fuccessive generations, with little alteration, are probably not susceptible of much improvement. The operations of husbandry were conducted apparently with more skill than in former periods. Directions are given for draining, clearing, and inclosing a farm; and for enriching and reducing the foil to tillage. Lime and marl are ftrongly recommended, but appear to have feldom been employed as manure. Fallowing was practifed as preparatory to wheat, but not that rotation of crops and fallows which invigorates the foil or preferves its nutrition 341. When a field was exhaufted by fucceffive harvests the farmer suffered it to rest till recruited, and proceeded to cultivate a fresh field from a part of his pastures. An improved cultivation is produced by the skill and traditional knowledge which farmers accumulate; and the produce of their labour may enable us to estimate with sufficient precision their knowledgeand skill. Sixteen and twenty bushels are affigned by Hollingshed as

³⁴¹ Fitzherbert's Surveyinge & Husbandrie, 1539., reprinted London 1767.

the usual return of an acre of wheat 342; a poor return, that argues a fordid degree of cultivation; yet let us remember that at prefent, in the fertile and beautiful vale of Gloucester, eighteen bushels are the common produce obtained from an acre 343. The prices were various; in years of fcarcity feldom exceeding the prefent rates; but in those of abundance, from a restricted exportation, too low perhaps to afford an adequate recompence to the farmer. The greatest dearth appears to have happened in 1486., when the quarter of wheat fold at 11. 4s. (equal to 11. 17s. of our present money); but in subsequent years the prices subsided sometimes to 4s. (equal to 6s. of our modern coin). Famine and pestilence afflicted the country in 1521., and raifed the quarter to 20s. (about 1l. 11s.); but in 1527., though many perished in London from hunger, a large and feafonable importation from Dantzick reftricted the price to 158. 344 It is observable that the dearths fo frequent in former times, are generally attributed by our ancient chronicles to the rigour of the feafons; and with fome truth, for whenever the culture is languid, every unexpected alteration of weather must influence the harvest, and produce an immediate deficiency of grain.

Leafes, though not uncommon, were hitherto Leafes. precarious; neither protecting the tenant from the entry of purchasers, nor securing his interest

³⁴² Hollingshed, p. 110.

³⁴² Marshal's Rural Economy of Gloucestershire, vol.i. p. 129.

³⁴⁴ Stowe, p. 471. 481. 526. 536.

against the operation of fictitious recoveries. To reinstate him when expelled by a new proprietor, an action of ejectment was fuftained, about the 14 Hen. VII. in courts of law; but to restore him against a recovery required and obtained the authority of a flatute 345. Leafes for three existing lives are recommended by Fitzherbert, to enable tenants whose fole stock is their personal labour, to furround their farms, and divide them by hedges into proper inclosures; by which operation, he fays, " If an acre of lande be worth fix " pens, or it be inclosed, it will be worth eight, " pens when it is inclosed, by reason of the "compostyng and dongvng of the catell 346." But the advantage which he chiefly proposes to the farmer is more economical, the prefervation of his corns without the expence of maintaining herdsmen. England, it is probable, to a fordid practice introduced into pasturage and adopted in husbandry, is indebted for those inclosures and minute subdivisions which distinguish its appearance from other countries, which increase its fertility, and bestow on its plains the interchangeable diversity of rich culture and luxurious woodlands.

Scotland.

Scotland during the present period had her historians; but such historians as were too much enamoured of great atchievements to record the

³⁴⁵ Blackstone, vol. iii. p. 199. 21 Hen. VIII. c. 5. The action of ejectment was perhaps of an earlier date; but its benefit was not extended to tenants till this period.

³⁴⁶ Surveyinge, p. 95.

minute, yet instructive, incidents of their own times. The fituation of their country, of its arts and commerce, is feldom mentioned, or described fo flightly that it is impossible to discover, not perhaps to conjecture with precision, the state of cultivation to which the country had attained. Its lands had formerly been held in ward, a military tenure, in Scotland peculiarly oppressive; on the feudal forfeiture, or during the wardship of the vaffal, every fubordinate grant was fufpended; his tenants were removed, his fub-vaffals ejected by the lord of the fee. Infeudations for rent had in 1457. been recommended, perhaps in effectually, by parliament; but a statute enacted in 1503.347, authorized the King and his vaffals to make fuch infeudations for an adequate rent, and exempted the grants from the operation of ward. A partial cultivation was thus promoted; but the peafant's possession was either precarious, or his leafe, which feldom extended to five years, of a duration too fhort to encourage improvement. His possession was precarious, but it was maintained by a general combination against intruders; new tenants were removed by murder, and the peafants, according to a cotemporary, neither inclosed nor planted, nor endeavoured to ameliorate the sterility of the foil 348. A persuasion prevails that Scotland formerly was a cultivated country: but the state of agriculture must have been poor and languid that required for its encouragement a new tenure, and a perpetuity instead of a temporary interest. The summit of a

347 Black Acts, p. 42. 57. 348 Major's Hift. p. 7.

mountain may be marked by the plough; but before the vallies were cleared of wood, tillage was necessarily confined to hills. Religious houses might derive a large revenue of wheat from lands productive of none at present; but before the establishment of regular markets, while the articles of commerce were procured with difficulty, feudal proprietors stipulated with their vaffals for whatever their domestic consumption required. Wheat at a future period was fupplied from England, for the produce of the country confifted chiefly of oats and barley. 349

Gardening.

Gardening, during the distractions of the civil wars, had been much neglected; but now it was profecuted with more affiduity, and with fuch fuccess, that to the present period is afcribed the introduction of various fruits and vegetables formerly known and produced in England. The fruit-garden was enriched indeed by large accessions from foreign countries, and apricots, melons, and currants from Zante were introduced, for the first time, in the fixteenth century, about the middle of Henry the Eighth's reign 350. That fallads, cabbages, and other vegetables were unknown till then, is a general, but I believe a mistaken, opinion. Sallads are mentioned early in Edward the Fourth's reign; and if we may credit Hollingshed, cabbages, turnips, and other roots, the produce of the garden, had been known and cultivated,

³⁴⁹ Pyne Moryfon's Itinerary, part.iii. p. 155.

as Anderson, vol. i. p. 338. 355. 362.

but afterwards neglected 351. The introduction of the cherry is also ascribed to the latter part of the prefent period, but we have discovered it already in the thirteenth century; nor was it afterwards extirpated or forgotten in England. 352

Gardening, however, was practifed more for Parks. utility than pleafure, and confifted chiefly in the culture of esculent herbs and fruits. The pleafure-garden was referved, I believe, for Elizabeth's reign, when a fquare parterre was inclosed with walls, scooped into fountains, and heaved into terraces. Yet the large and numerous parks of the nobility may be regarded either as contracted forests, or extended gardens 353. Their extent comprehended feveral miles, and their number, in Kent and Effex alone, amounted to an hundred 354. Such large inclosures were peculiar to England, and better entitled to the appellation of pleafure-grounds, than those gardens of a future period, that exhi-

³⁵¹ Fenn's Original Letters, vol. i. p. 288. Hollingshed, p. 208.

³⁵² Vide vol. viii. ch. 5. It appears to have been common, from the following rude verses, printed anno 1496., but composed, perhaps, at an earlier poriod:

[&]quot;Who, that mannyth hym wyth his kyne,

[&]quot; And clofyth his crofte wyth cherry trees;

[&]quot; Shall have many hegges brokynne, " And also full lytyll good fervyes."

HERBERT's Typographical Antiquities, vol. i. p. 129.

Walpole's Anecdotes of Painting, vol iv. p. 126.

Hollingshed, p. 204. The Earl of Northumberland possessed in Northumberland, Cumberland, and Yorkshire, twenty-one parks, containing five thousand seven hundred and seventy-one red and fallow deer, from which his table was supplied with twenty bucks in summer and twenty-nine does in winter. Setting Lent afide, this was more than a deer a week. Besides these, he had several parks in Sussex, and other fouthern counties. Northumberland Household Book.

bited in the vegetable, the mimic appearance of the animal creation.

In Scot-

In Scotland, different laws were enacted for planting groves and enclosing with hedges; a proof that the woods were nearly exhausted, and that no provision had been made to renew them. By the same statutes the formation of orchards, gardens, and parks for deer, is imposed on the landholders, as a necessary improvement; but a spirit of improvement is excited in a country by causes very different from the penalties, or the barren injunctions of statutes. 355

Hops and

The culture of hops in the present period was either introduced or revived in England; and flax was attempted, but without success, though enforced by law 356. Legislature at that time endeavoured to execute, by means of penalties, those national improvements which have since been fostered and cherished by bounties.

Breed of horfes.

To the passion of the age, and the predilection of the monarch for splendid tournaments, may be attributed the attention bestowed on a breed of horses, of a strength and stature adapted to the weight of the complicated panoply with which the knight and his courser were both invested. Statutes of a singular nature were enacted, allotting for deer parks a certain proportion of breeding mares, and enjoining, not the prelates and nobles only, but those whose wives wore velvet bonnets, to have stallions of a certain size for their saddle. The legal standard was, sisteen

²⁵⁵ Black Acts, p. 104, 105. 108.

³⁵⁶ Hollingshed, p. 110, 111. 24 Hen. VIII. c. 4.

hands in horses, thirteen in mares, and " unlikely tits" were, without distinction, configned to execution 357. James the Fourth, with more propriety, imported horses from foreign countries, to improve the degenerate breed of his own 359. Artificial graffes for their winter provender were still unknown; nor were affes propagated in England till a fubsequent period. 359

There is a certain perfection in art to which Architechuman genius may afpire with fuccess, but be-ture. yond which, it is the apprehension of many, that improvement degenerates into false taste and fantastic refinement. The rude simplicity of Saxon architecture was fupplanted by the magnificence of the ornamental Gothic; but magnificence itself is at last exhausted, and it terminated during the prefent period in a stile which fome, with an allusion to literature, denominate the florid. Its characteristics are a profusion of ornaments, minute yet delicate; a finishing light and slender, from which apparent strength and folidity recede; walls furmounted by latticed battlements; windows less pointed, but broad and open; roofs divided by flight ribs into numerous compartments, fretted curiously like rich embroidery, interspersed with sculpture, and fpangled with pencil and cluftering decorations, like those grottoes where the oozing water is petrified before it distils from the vault. It is a stile

^{357 27} Hen. VIII. vol. vi. 36 Hen. VIII. vol. xiii. Vide Barrington's Observations on the Statutes, p. 443.

²⁵⁸ Pitscottie, p. 153.

³⁵⁹ Hollingshed, p. 220. Polydore, Virgil, p. 13.

Civil.

censurable as too ornamental, departing from the grandeur peculiar to the Gothic, without acquiring proportional elegance; yet its intricate and redundant decorations are well calculated to rivet theeye, and amaze, perhaps to be wilder, the mind. In Somerfetshire, a county devoted to the cause of Lancaster, several churches were rebuilt in this flile by the gratitude or policy of Henry the Seventh; but the fuperb chapel which he erected in Westiminster exhausted, it is probable, every ornament that tafte could dictate, or piety accumulate. The expence amounted to 14,000l. in quantity upwards of 20,000l., but in efficacy equivalent, perhaps, to 80,000l. of our modern coin; and the fabric exhibits a splendid specimen of Gothic architecture, in its lateft, perhaps most degenerate period. Christ Church College was built by Wolfey in the same stile, and with fimilar tafte; but the genius of Gothic architecture languished after the death of that favourite, and expired with his fovereign. Grecian architecture was then introduced, but its orders, till a purer tafte was created, were intermixed promiscuously with those of the Gothic, producing a difcordant and barbarous affemblage. 300

The facred, imparted to civil architecture a character fo fuited to the profuse magnificence of Henry the Eighth. His predecessors had resided in castles, or in houses constructed with few ornaments and little conveniency 351; but

³⁶⁰ Vide Wren's Parentalia. Bentham's Hift. of Ely. Warton's Observations on Spencer. Grose's Antiquities of England. Pref.

³⁶¹ The Old Palace of Westminster, burnt in Henry the Eighth's reign, was a fortified place. Howel's Londonopolis, p. 346.

after the invention of cannon, and during a long feafon of profound repose, the utility of castles had ceafed; the nobles folicited better accommodation, the King and his minister superior elegance. Whitehall, Nonfuch, and Hamptoncourt were erected, the former by Henry, the last by Wolfey, in the florid stile of the present period. Whitehall and Nonfuch have perished. but Wolfey's magnificence is still attested by Hampton-court; a refidence, fays Grotius, befitting rather a god than a king³⁶². Ancient buildings, the property of the crown, were either repaired or renewed by Henry; but his tafte and rapacity were both gratified by the diffolution of the monasteries, and the conversion of religious structures into royal abodes. Dartford was appropriated to his use, and St. James's transformed from a nunnery to a palace 363. His nobles began to remove the martial fronts of their castles, and endeavoured to render them more commodious³⁶⁴; but in architecture the nation participated neither the spirit nor the tafte of its fovereign. The mansions of gentlemen were still fordid; the huts of the peafantry poor and wretched. The former were generally thatched buildings, composed of timber, or, where wood was scarce, of large posts

364 Hollingshed, p. 194.

²⁶² Si quis opes nescit, sed quis tamen ille,
Hamptoncourta tuos, consulat ille lares,
Contulerit toto cum sparsa palatia mundo,
Dicit ibi reges, hic habitare Deos.
GROTH Poemata.

Hollingshed, p. 196. Stowe's Survey. Rymer, vol. ziv. p. 563.

inferted in the earth, filled up in the interstices with rubbish, plastered within, and covered on the outfide with coarfe clay 365. The latter were flight frames, prepared in the forests at a small expence, and, when erected, probably covered with mud 300. In cities, the houses were constructed mostly of the same materials, for bricks were still too costly for general use; and the ftories feem to have projected forward as they rofe in height, intercepting funfhine and air from the streets beneath 367. The apartments, Erafmus observes, were stifling, lighted by lattices, fo contrived as to prohibit the occasional and falutary admission of external air. The floors were of clay strewed with rushes; but in the frequent renewal of these (they remained for years a foul receptacle of every pollution) we discover nothing of the scrupulous cleanlines that attends the English 308. A more pleasing picture is exhibited in an ancient ballad, of a ruftic habitation on the borders of England. The house was divided into two apartments, the outer for fervants: the inner a chamber for the peafant and his wife 369; and on this simple plan, which is ftill retained in a part of Scotland, farmers houses were generally constructed. Chimnies were appropriated to larger mansions; but the fire was kindled against a reredosse in the mid-

Hollingshed, p. 187.

²⁶⁶ 37 Hen. VII. c. 6. Fenn's Original Letters, vol. iii. p. 141.
³⁶⁷ Hollingshed, p. 188. Anderson, vol. i. p. 337. Strutt's Antiq. vol. ii. p. 46.

²⁶⁸ Erasmi Epist. 432.

²⁶⁹ Pinkerton's Ancient Scottish Poems, vol.i. p.65. vol.ii. \$98.

dle of the hall, and the smoke escaped through a perforation in the roof. 370

In military architecture, whatever improve- Military. ments were produced on the continent, few alterations were adopted in Britain. Ancient castles were much diminished, nor was it the policy of the crown to rebuild them. As fortreffes, they were dangerous yet not fecure; dangerous to public tranquillity, yet not fecure against regular fieges. Neither their strength nor construction was calculated, after the invention of artillery, to annoy befiegers, or refift the continued impression of cannon. Low batteries inflead of turrets, and inflead of square or circular, angular ramparts were, after the application of artillery to fieges, improvements requifite in military architecture; yet, unless some platforms of cannon for the protection of the Thames, and a few block-houses, too infignificant to acquire a name, no new fortifications were erected in England by either of the Henries 373. Their vigilance repressed or prevented internal discord, and the caftles upheld on the borders were fufficient to refift the incursions of the Scots.

In manual operations skill and dexterity in- Metallic crease insensibly; nor is it possible, nor is it the scope of this history, to mark, in the progress of the arts, the filent improvement acquired by the artift. We may remark, however, that the increafing refinement of the period was conducive to the perfection, as well as to the increase of the

37º Hollingshed, 188. Stowe, p. 576. Hollingshed, p. 194. VOL. XII.

271 Polydore Virgil, Hift. p. 15.

metallic

Anno 1528.

metallic arts. The luxury of the table descended to citizens, requiring fo generally the use of plate, that there are few, fays Polydore, whose tables are not daily provided with spoons, cups, and a falt-cellar of filver. Those of a higher sphere affected a greater profusion of plate 372; but the quantity accumulated by Cardinal Wolfey, though the precious metals are now fo copious, still continues to excite our furprise 373. At Hampton Court, where he feafted the French ambaffadors and their spendid retinue, two cupboards, extending across the banquet chambers, were piled to the top with plate and illuminated; yet without encroaching on these oftentatious repositories, a profuse service remained for the tables 374. From the complaints of the people, reiterated even

372 Polydore Virgil, p. 13. His testimony is explicit. scarcity, or rather total want of plate in the Northumberland family, is a fingular exception. Treen, or wooden plates, were used in the family, and pewter vessels were hired on solemn sestivals. The luxury of London, and the fouthern countries had certainly not extended to the north, where old families, whose journeys to court were only occafional, and never voluntary, affected to retain the manners of the former age. (See Lodge's Illustrations of British History, vol. i.) Befides, the Northumberland family were feated too near the borders, and its caftles were too frequently plundered by the Scots, for any quantity of plate to be accumulated or purchased. Household Book.

³⁷³ See Cavendifh, ch. 17.

³⁷⁴ Stowe, p. 537. Cavendish. Two hundred and eighty beds were provided for the guests; a goodly company. "Every chamber," fays Stowe, " had a bason and an ewer of silver, a great livery pot of filver, and some guilt; yea, and some chambers had two livery " pots with wine and beer; a filver candleftick, having in it two 66 fizes, yet the cupboards in the two banqueting chambers were not " once touched."

in parliament 375, we may infer that the artificers were often foreigners; yet in one art, the manufacture of pewter, such merit was imputed to English workmen, that they were prohibited by statute from quitting the realm, or imparting their mystery to foreign apprentices 376. Carving. gilding, embroidery, the making of clocks, and probably other ingenious metallic arts, had been practifed in monasteries; and their suppression furnished a considerable accession of useful artists 377. Pins, fuch as are used at present, were fabricated in the latter end of the present period; yet it is observable that the legislature, whose interference in manufactures is feldom falutary, attempted for a time to suppress this trivial but useful art. 378

While foreign artificers were discountenanced In Scotin England, an opposite policy was attempted in Scotland; and if we may credit historians 379, workmen of every description were collected from different countries by James the Fifth. His endeavours to introduce manufactures, or to improve the rude arts that were practifed in Scotland, are represented as partly successful; but they were partly frustrated by his premature death. Mines of gold, discovered during his fa- Mines. ther's reign, were wrought by Germans under his directions; and from these mines, the first

^{375 14} Hen. VIII. c. 2. 21 Hen. VIII. c. 16. 22 Hen. VIII. c. 13. Hen. VIII. c. 16.

376 33 Hen. VIII. c. 4.

377 Strype, vol. i. p. 372. Fenn's Orig. Let. vol. ii. p. 31. 32 Hen. VIII. c. 16.

^{378 34, 35} Hen. VIII. c.6. 37 Hen. VIII. c.13. Anderson, vol. i.

³⁷⁹ Pitscottie, p. 153. Hawthornden, p. 114.

in Scotland, it is faid that he extracted confiderable treasure 380. It is possible that their produce, while labour was cheap, and before the influx of wealth from America, might have been valuable; but it is more probable that the undertaking soon ceased to desiral the expense. In the same region, instead of the precious metals, mines of the richest lead have been since discovered; but the gold that was formerly sought by monarchs is reduced to a few minute fragments, gathered by the shepherd from the sands deposited by the winter torrents.

Clothing Arts.

The clothing arts if retarded formerly by the civil diffensions, were now promoted by various circumftances,-the tranquillity of the period, the policy ascribable to Henry VII., the magnificent court which his fon supported, and the gaiety, tafte, and refinement of the age. There were few infurrections, and these insufficient to subvert the government. Henry VII. was attentive, next to his own, to the national interest; and when he laboured, both by treaties and private affiftance, to encourage the spirit of commercial adventure, we may prefume that manufactures, the true fource of commercial intercourfe, were not neglected 38t. It is faid, on what account I have not discovered, that the woollen manufacture was improved and extended by

391 See in Leland's Collectanea, vol. iv. p. 202., an instance of the

King's attention to the trade of Briftol, then declining.

³⁸⁰ Hawthornden, p. 114. Boethius, Descript. Reg. Scot. p. 6. The spars and crystals of the lead-hills are easily recognized in the jaspers, rubies, and adamants, with which the warm imagination of Boethius has impregnated these hills.

workmen whom his bounty allured from Flanders 382, and it is certain that the period of English prosperity commences after the decline of Bruges, the removal of its commerce, and the dispersion of its artists. The splendid dissipation of his fon's reign was, if possible, more propitious to manufactures, than the father's prudence. His policy was feldom judicious; but his example ferved to diffuse and to countenance a taste for magnificence. The nobility and gentry, renouncing their former rustic hospitality, frequented his court, where their fortunes were dislipated in a mutual emulation of costly equipage and rich attire. Nor was this peculiar to courtiers, or confined to the English; refinement had already pervaded Europe, and, instructing every rank to aspire to a better situation and to superior enjoyments, re-acted on commerce from which it originated, and redoubled the produce of those manufactures by which it was gratified.

It must be confessed, however, that in England the drefs of the wealthy, and in some measure the homely clothing of the poorer orders, were supplied from abroad. Silks, velvets, and cloth of gold, an article at that time in high estimation, were imported from Italy; coarfe fuftians from Flanders, of a texture fo durable that the doublet lasted for two years 382. The manufactures were judiciously confined to woollens, the extent of which is attefted in different statutes, by the varieties fabricated and the quantities exported.

³⁸² Anderson, vol. i. p. 306.

³⁸³ Ibid. p. 306. 376. 11 Hen. VII. c. 28.

Of a flighter texture or inferior quality thirteen different cloths are enumerated; but the fabrication of broad-cloth was adjusted and regulated with an anxious precaution 384. The repeated provisions that regard exportation, may convince us that the quantity exported was then confiderable; but a better proof is discovered in the conflant and otherwise unaccountable increase of prices. The exportation of cloth was reftrained by flatute, till shorn, rowled, or completely manufactured; but an exception was granted in 1486. for rays, veffes, and white woollens, whose prices exceeded not forty shillings. At the distance of twenty-feven years, cloths of the fame description and quality acquired an exemption when below five marks, and after an interval of twenty years the exception was again extended to four pounds 385. It is true, the voice of the legislature is not always the organ of truth, but credit is due to its information wherever the times extort a reluctant concession. The manufactures of a nation are commonly estimated by its positive situation at different periods; a juster measure may be obtained from the relative fituation of other states, its competitors and rivals. At a time when the manufactures of the Netherlands were prosperous, and those of Spain still considerable 386, England, indebted to neither for her internal confumption, appears to have furnished from

384 See Stat. Hen. VII. and VIII. paffim.

386 Anderson, vol. i. p. 349.

³⁸⁵ Stat. 3 Hen. VIII. c. 11. 3 Hen. VIII. c. 7. 5 Hen. VIII. c. 3. 47 Hen. VIII. c. 13.

the furplus of her manufactures a large exportation. Her fales were chiefly confined to the Netherlands, then the emporium of exchange through Europe; but her foreign commerce was daily extended; her traders, early in the fixteenth century, diffused her manufactures through the Grecian isles 387, and discovered, in the middle of the same century, a new market in the Russian empire.

A.D. 1511-12.

Such were the woollen manufactures of England, more extensive than those of Spain, and rivalled only by those of Flanders. Their prosperity refulted from natural causes, not from fyftems concerted by the legislature, whose regulations are rarely dictated by a judicious policy. Regulations operate as restrictions; but the wifdom of Henry VII. is chiefly conspicuous in the few restrictions imposed on trade. Under his fuccesfors the interpolition of parliament was frequent, often injurious, and fometimes productive of pernicious monopolies. The preparation of Yorkshire coverlets was confined to York, an ancient city, depopulated, fays the statute, by the neighbouring villages 308; but in Worcestershire the woollen manufactures were all reftricted, for a fimilar reason, to five towns 389. At 'a former period the exportation of wool had been prohibited, apparently without effect; but a power devolved on prerogative, of dispensing with the flatute, operated, it is probable, in occa-

³⁸⁷ Hakluyt's Voyages, part ii. p. 96.

^{388 34, 35} Hen. VIII. C. 10.

³⁸⁹ 25 Hen. VIII. c. 18. The towns were Worcester, Evesham, Droitwich, Kidderminster, and Broomsgrove.

fional monopolies 390. A patent obtained by the city of York for shipping wool, to the exclusion probably of the whole county, required a formal abrogation in parliament 391. The exportation of wool was immense; in one year fixty cargoes were dispatched to the Netherlands from Southampton alone 392. To agriculture the confequences were ruinous; to manufactures perhaps they were falutary. The rude produce exceeded the quantity employed at home; the furplus therefore was wifely exported; and every exportation enabled the kingdom, by increasing its capital, to enlarge the circle, and increase the produce of its own manufactures. But for an early and lucrative exportation of wool, England might still have been poor and wretched, without cultivation, and deflitute equally of arts and of commerce.

The smaller manufactures were still inconsiderable; confifting principally of ribbands, laces, and fimilar articles prepared by the filk company; and felt hats, a coarse manufacture established in London after the accession of Henry VIII. 393 Cottons occur in the statute-book; an appellation bestowed, I suspect, on a species of woollen; for linen, even the coarfest dowlas, was derived from Flanders 394. Hemp was introduced, and its culture recommended; not however for the weaver's benefit, but to furnish

^{391 21} Hen. VIII. c. 17. soo See vol. viii. ch. 5.

aga Anderson, vol. i. p. 381.

^{393 19} Hen. VII. c. 21. Anders. p. 332. Stowe, p. 870. Hats, however, are of greater antiquity; they are mentioned in the letters published by Fenn, and were probably imported by the Flemish so. early as Hen. VI. See Strutt's Antiq. vol. iii. p. 83.

^{394 21} Hen. VIII. c. 14. 27 Hen. VIII. c. 13.

materials for cordage and cables 305. Tapeftryweaving was attempted, with what fuccess is uncertain 396. Among the finaller manufactures those of Scotland might probably be included; vet Hector Boethius, partial perhaps to his birth-place, celebrates the woollen manufactures of Dundee, and affures us that cloths of the whitest and most delicate texture were fabricated at Dumfries, and exported to England, Flanders, France, and Germany 397. But whatever was the progress of Scotland in arts and commerce, her historians, regarding the fubject as ungracious, have maintained a guarded and ambiguous filence.

The English are classed by Erasmus, with some Art of truth, among those barbarians that are prone to war 398. Is it the genius or the peculiar misfortune of the nation, when secure at home, to search abroad for military glory, to reject the tranquillity which their infular fituation has always proffered, and in the wars of others, to which they ought to have no accession, to spend profusely their strength and treasures? Henry VII. had no inclination, his imprudent fuccessor had no call, to unsheath the fword. His example is the first of an English monarch interposing to regulate the balance of Europe; but his victories were barren, his conquests transient, and succeeding princes who have imitated his example, have feldom failed to inherit his fortune.

^{395 24} Hen. VIII. c. 4.

³⁹⁶ Dugdale's Warwickshire, vol. ii. p. 584.

²⁹⁷ Descriptio Scot. pp. 3. and 5.

³⁹⁸ Ad Philippum Paneg. Vid. Jortin's Life of Erasmus, vol ii. p. 171.

frequent levies preferved the national arms and discipline, but his foreign expeditions served merely to enure the English to the recent improvements in the art of war.

Raising troops.

Military fervices had paffed into defuetude, or were feldom exacted from the feudal tenants, unless for the purposes of pecuniary extortion. Forces were levied for the defence of the kingdom by commissions of array, for expeditions abroad by indentures for foldiers 399. When an invafion was apprehended from France or Scotland, commiffions were iffued through the different counties, for mustering the inhabitants in arms, selecting those that were fitted for service, and arraying them according to their rank and weapons 400. Foreign wars were conducted by troops of mercenaries, raifed by mutual indenture between the King and his officers. An indenture between the Earl of Kent and Henry VII. provides, that the former shall furnish six men at arms, including himfelf, each attended by a page and cuftrel; fixteen demilances, fixty archers on foot, and twenty-one mounted on horseback; at the daily pay of 6d. (equivalent to 2s. 6d. of our present money) for each of the archers; 9d. (equal to 4s.) for the demilances; and 1s. 6d. (in its efficacy equal to 7s. 6d.) for the men at arms, their attendants and horses 401. Such indentures are numerous, and were certainly lucrative; for the principal nobility, on the same terms, contracted to furnish

³⁹⁹ See vol. ii. ch. 5. fect. i.

⁴⁰⁰ Rymer, vol. xiii. p. 300. 374. 399.

⁴⁰¹ Rym, vol. xii. p.477.

the army with foldiers. Their fervice was temporary, limited commonly to the space of a year: for unless the yeomen of the guard, instituted by Henry VII., and the gentlemen-pensioners by his fon, (a band of archers and a troop of horse,) a military establishment was unknown in England. 402

Their weapons and armour were, with little Arme variation, fuch as the affize of arms had formerly appointed 403. Men at arms, whose prowess was most conspicuous, held the highest estimation: but the strength of the army still consisted in archers, now more formidable by the addition of halberts, which they pitched on the ground till their arrows were exhausted, and with which they refifted the impression of cavalry 404. Sometimes they fought intermixed with the common foldiers, who were armed indifcriminately with bills and spears 405. The troops were distinguished by scarfs and badges; but the diversity both of their dress and arms, must have given their arrangements a motley appearance. 406

Two hundred years had elapsed fince the dif. Fire-arms, covery of gunpowder, and its first application to the art of war; but fire-arms of a portable conftruction were a recent invention, that gave no promife of fupplanting the bow. Hand-guns were first introduced; a species of small culverin without a flock fastened to a tripod, and managed like a fwivel 407; but the musket, mounted

⁴⁰² Hall, Hen. VII. p. 3. Grose's Milit. Antiq.

⁴⁰⁴ Herbert's Hist. p. 20. 403 See vol. vi. ch. 5. fect. I.

⁴⁰⁶ Grofe's Milit. Antiq. 405 Strutt, vol. iii. p. 9.

Daniel's Hift. de Milice.

on a flock and discharged from the shoulder, was employed in 1521., at the fiege of Parma, and probably foon adopted in England 408. Its form was clumfy, and its weight inconvenient; it was placed on a reft, and discharged by a match-lock; but the different operations requisite for the management of the rest and match (for adjusting the one, and blowing, fixing, and removing the other,) perplexed the foldier, and rendered his discharges flow and irregular. Muskets, to facilitate their management, were then reduced to a diminutive fize, till a statute prohibited those the length of whose stock and barrel was less than a yard 409. But the bow was still preferred for its greater dispatch, and in the hands of an English archer it possessed, within a determinate range, a fleadier aim and a greater execution 470. The musketeers were defective in skill; their muskets probably were ill-constructed, yet their fire was formidable to the men at arms, whose harnefs never refifted the stroke of a bullet.

Artillery.

The improvements produced on artillery are, at this distance, neither perceptible, nor of much importance. Brass and iron ordnance had been procured from the continent, till a foundery for cannon was established in 1535., by Owen an Englishman 41. Such a foundery had been attempted in Scotland at an earlier period, with 10me success, by Borthwick, an artist in the ser-

⁴⁰⁸ Belay. Herbert.

^{409 33} Hen. VIII. c.6. Vide Grose's Milit. Antiq.

⁴¹⁰ Life of Lord Herbert, p. 51.

⁴¹¹ Stowe, p. 571.

ARTS.

vice of James IV. 412 Mortars and bombs were invented in 1544., by foreigners whom Henry VIII. employed. 413

In Scotland armies were levied by mufters; Scotland. and to render the inhabitants expert at arms, weapon-shaws, or reviews, were appointed four times, afterwards twice a-year, in the different counties. The arms to be provided by every rank were adjusted as in England; suits of armour by the nobles, gentlemen, burgeffes, and others, whose rents or whose goods amounted to 100l.; jacks of plate and steel bonnets by persons of inferior rank and opulence, with fwords and spears, or instead of the latter, with halberts or battleaxes, bows, culverins, or two-handed fwords 414. The spear (whose length was seventeen feet) was the national weapon; a formidable weapon when projected by a fleady and compact battalion. But the Scottish troops were deficient in discipline; when galled at a diftance by the English archers, their impatience often precipitated their fteps and difordered their ranks, intercepted the use of their unwieldy spears, and impelled them promiscuously on the sword of the enemy.

The necessary or useful arts may be concluded Printing. with printing, the utility of which is acknowledged, not merely as subservient to science, but as conducive to the perfection of whatever ministers to

⁴¹² Lefly, p. 353. The guns were cast in Edinburgh castle, and some of them remained with this inscription in Lesly's time. Machina fum Scoto Borthuik fabricata Roberto.

⁴¹³ Stowe, p. 584.

comfort or elegance. Its introduction by Caxton has been noted 415; its improvement under his fucceffor was fuch, that the types of Wynken de Worde have ferved, it is afferted, for Saxon characters to the prefent times 416. The books which he printed are numerous; but Pinfon, Raftell, and others his competitors, contributed equally to the improvement of printing. The publications of these early printers were chiefly of a popular nature, legends, romances, religious discourses; books necessarily popular at every period, because they are calculated to agitate the passions, or amuse the untutored taste of the multitude. Some Latin grammars were alfo printed; but it is observable, that after the revival of letters, at a time when the ancients were fludied, their languages adopted, and their elegance imitated, Terence, Virgil's Eclogues, and Tully's Offices were the only claffical productions of the English press 417. But the printers were either translators or authors; their literature feldom extended to Latin; they had few claffical readers to gratify, and their own vernacular compositions coincided happily with the national tafte. The Germans were diverted from improving their language, by their numerous presses, conducted by scholars and teeming with classics; but the books that iffued from the English press were adapted to those who were neither learned nor untinctured with letters, and promoted, more perhaps than the

417 Id. passim.

⁴¹⁵ See vol. x. ch. 5.

⁴¹⁶ Herbert's Typographical Antiq. vol. i. p. 118.

fludy of the ancients, the early refinement of the English language.

These printers have yet a merit in compiling the materials, and recording the annals of English flory. Grafton, who printed the Bible, completed the Chronicles of Hall and Harding; and of those published by Hollingshed and Harrison much must be ascribed to the previous collections of Wolfe, a printer, whose life was consumed in historical refearches 4.8. Their presses, however, were confined to black letter, (the Roman character was feldom employed,) and were still inferior to those on the continent. The Reformers printed abroad, a circumstance imputable to Henry's imperious supremacy; but the Bible which he authorized was attempted first at Paris, where workmen, it is faid, were dexterous, and paper abundant 419. A paper-mill had been erected at Hartford, Anno 1507.; but its paper probably was much inferior to that of the French 420. Printing was also introduced into Scotland; but missals and statutes were the only productions of the Scottish press.

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⁴¹³ Vid. p. 502. 596. Hollingshed's Pref.

⁴¹⁹ Fox's Martyrs, vol. ii. p.515. 42c Typograph. Ant. vol. i. p. 200.

SECTION II.

History of the fine and pleasing Arts of Sculpture, Painting, Poetry, and Music, in Britain, from A.D. 1485. to A.D. 1547.

Fine arts.

WHERE are certain imitative arts that folicit retirement, others that ficken in the shade, and only expand to the funshine of courts, or the genial influence of popular favour. Poetry has prospered in obscurity, or under discountenance; but sculpture and painting are more dependent on the public regard, and require, particularly in an age emerging from rudeness, more immediate protection and patronage. None was to be obtained or expected from Henry VII., who had neither tafte to relish, nor spirit to remunerate diftinguished merit. His chapel may be ascribed to a pious folicitude for his future welfare, or regarded as an inftance, a folitary inftance, of vanity predominating over his avarice: but his tomb originated folely from vanity, and its merit is exclusively due to his fuccessor, by whom it was erected, and the expence defrayed.

Sculpture.

The tomb was executed, according to Stowe, by Peter T., a native of Florence 421; and in this obfcure appellation, antiquaries have difcovered Pietro Torregeano, a fculptor, once the competitor of Michael Angelo. That artist's pre-eminence he had resented by a hasty blow, for which

he was expelled, or departed from Florence: and after some vicisfitudes of life, was retained as a fculptor by Henry VIII., and employed in erecting his father's monument 422. His reward was liberal; 1000l. for the materials and workmanship, (equivalent now to 5000l.); but it is easier perhaps to trace his hiftory than pronounce on his merits 423. The tomb was probably defigned by another, as its tafte is Gothic, and adapted, particularly in the outward shrine, to the style of the chapel. The minute and florid decorations of architecture, which often ferve to diffract the attention, are applied with peculiar advantage to monumental shrines, where the whole is comprehended at a fingle inspection, and of which the parts are fusceptible of an exquisite polish 424. The small statues that embellished the fepulchre are partly decayed; those of Henry and his confort remain; but whatever be their merit, it would be difficult to recognife in the fculpture a competitor worthy of Michael Angelo.

Sculpture feems to be a rarer talent, its per- Painting. fection more unattainable than painting; and in the patronage of the latter, Henry certainly

⁴²² Walpole's Anecdotes of Painting, vol. i. p. 96.

⁴²³ Stowe. Walpole. He quitted England to fettle in Spain, where, in his passion, he demolished an image he had carved for the Virgin, for which he was imprisoned by the inquisition, and, from madness or a lofty spirit, starved himself to death. Sir Antonio More for a fimilar offence met with a more lenient punishment. Philip King of Spain bestowed a familiar but rough slap on the painter's shoulders, which the latter returned with his cane; and for this the punishment was a temporary banishment. In Spain it is fafer to affault the person of a living monarch, than to deface the statue of a dead virgin. Walpole, vol. 1. p. 123.

⁴²⁴ See Dart's Antiq. of Westminster Abbey.

was more fuccessful. Mabuse, a profligate Flemish painter, but of some merit, appears to have been employed in his father's court, whither he was probably driven by his own diffreffes, rather than allured by the monarch's bounty. The art, however, was little regarded till the fon's reign, who endeavoured, it is faid, to procure from Italy, Raphael and Titian; and under whose protection feveral Flemish and Italian painters frequented England. But their merit is obscured by that of the celebrated Holbein, who, for the foftness and richness of his colouring, was preferred to the first Italian painters, at a time when painting had attained in Italy to its meridian splendor. He was first established in Bafil, afterwards (1526.) recommended by Erasmus to Sir Thomas More, and passed the subsequent part of his life, with more security than his unfortunate patron, in the fervice of Henry VIII. and his fon. His pencil, among its other employments, pourtrayed the beauties of Henry's wives, or of those whom Henry intended to wed; and to procure a just report of the latter, he was twice dispatched to the continent as the fecret emissary of Henry's love. But he was not always a faithful emiffary; his pencil. if impartial to the Duchess or Milan, imparted unmerited charms to Anne of Cleves, and enfnared his mafter into a diftafteful marriage; for which, while the painter escaped unpunished, Cromwell the minister, loft his head. Princes in their marriages are now to be pitied; they must fee and choose from a flattering portrait, and wed

by proxy without inclination; but the difasters that Henry tafted in marriage provoke derifion: Henry, who exalted his female subjects to his throne and bed, and when fated with their charms, like an Eastern tyrant, dismissed them to the fcaffold. Holbein lived in England without a competitor, and died (1554.) without a fucceffor to eclipfe his memory. His works, of which many are lost or dispersed abroad, are justly celebrated as dear to connoisseurs for the perfection of their colouring, dear to antiquaries for their age and scarcity. 425

To painting may be added a fubordinate art, Engraving, that copies and ferves to diffuse its defigns. Engraving was coeval in England with printing; a rude engraving, employed as a substitute for illuminating, to decorate the titles and initials of books. Some copper-plates were produced at the end of this period 426; but these are only memorable as the first specimens in England of an art that aspires to imitate, though unable to emulate, the perfection of painting. Poetry and painting will still retain this material difference, that the works of the latter cannot be multiplied like those of the former, not at least in their original luftre; but the difadvantage is in fome measure recompensed by this, that the productions of poetry are more local, confined to a district, a nation, a language; while those of

426 Walpole's Catalogue of Engravers, p. 5.

⁴²⁵ Such is the eulogy pronounced by Mr. Walpole; himfelf a rare inflance of tafte united to a love of antiquities. Anec. Paint. vol. i. p. 94.

painting, expressive only of natural appearances, are intelligible in every region, to every nation.

Poetry.

The age of Henry VII. and his predecessor Richard, is characterifed by the historian of English poetry as fertile in verfifiers, but productive only of one that merits the name of poet 427; yet in this exception there is reason to suspect that the historian's judgment was bribed, or his tafte perverted, by a love of antiquity. Stephen Hawes, a groom of the chamber to Henry VII., composed, among other poems of obscure merit, the Temple of Glass, and the Pastime of Pleasure; but the one is a transcript from Chaucer, the other a prolix and tedious allegory: the conception of which required little invention, and of which the imagery is apparently of little value 428. His verification, however, improves upon Lydgate's, and is far superior to Barclay's or Skelton's, contemporaries curious for the manners of the period, but as poets beneath attention. The truth is, that with every advantage derived from learning, with a language that approached, though it had not attained to its present state, English poetry, till refined by Surry, degenerated into metrical chronicles or tafteless allegories.

In Scot-

It was different in Scotland, where poetry, such as Chaucer might acknowledge and Spencer imitate, was cultivated in a language superior to Chaucer's. Dunbar and Douglas were distin-

⁴²⁷ Warton's Hift. Poet. vol. ii. p. 165. 210.

⁴²⁸ Ibid. Warton has diffected the poem, but has given no favourable specimens of its particular merits.

guished poets, whose genius would have reflected luftre on a happier period, and whose works, though partly obscured by age, are perused with pleasure, even in a dialect configned to rustics. Dunbar, an ecclefiaftic, at least an expectant of church preferment, feems to have languished at the court of James IV. whose marriage with Margaret of England he has celebrated in the Thiftle and the Rofe; an happy allegory, by which the vulgar topics of an epithalamium are judiciously avoided, and exhortation and eulogy delicately infinuated. The verification of the poem is harmonious, the stanza artificial and pleafing, the language copious and felected, the narrative diversified, rising often to dramatic energy. The poem from its fubject is descriptive, but Dunbar improves the most luxuriant description by an intermixture of imagery, sentiment, and moral observation. The following is a specimen:

The purpour fone, with tendir bemys reid, In orient bricht as angell did appeir, Throw goldin skyis putting up his heid, Quhois gilt treffis schone so wondir cleir, That all the world tuke comfort, fer and heir, To luke upone his fresche and blissfull face, Doing all fable fro the heavenis chace.

And as the blisfull sonne of cherarchy The fowlis fung throw comfort of the licht; The burdis did with open voicis cry, O luvaris fo, away thow dully nicht, And welcum day that comfortis every wicht; Hail May, hail Flora, hail Aurora schene, Hail princes Nature, hail Venus, Luvis quene.

The Golden Terge is another allegorical poem of Dunbar's, constructed in a stanza similar to Spenfer's, but more artificial, and far more difficult 429. In description perhaps it excels, in fentiment it fcarcely equals the Thiftle and Rofe. Its narrative is not interchanged with dialogue; its allegory refers to the passions, the dominion of beauty, the fubjection of reason, and is less fortunate than the Thiftle and Rose, whose occult and fecondary fignification is an historical truth that fubfilts apart, and however embellished, cannot be obscured by the oftensible emblem. When the paffions or the mental powers are perfonified and involved in action, we purfue the tale, forgetful of the thin abstraction, to which it is relative; but to remedy this, the Golden Terge has a merit in its brevity which few allegorical poems possess. The allegorical genius of our ancient poetry discovers often a sublime invention; but it has intercepted what is now more valuable, the representation of genuine character, and of the manners peculiar to ancient life. These manners Dunbar has sometimes delineated with humour, in poems lately retrieved from oblivion 430; and from them he appears in the new light of a skilful fatirist and an attentive observer of human nature.

Gavin Douglas, his contemporary, was more confpicuous by the rare union of birth and learning, and is still distinguished as the first poetical

450 Vide his Poems in Pinkerton's Collection.

⁴²⁹ Like Spenfer's it confifts of nine verfes, reftricting however to two rhimes inflead of three, which Spenfer's admits of.

translator of the classics in Britain. Early in youth he translated Ovid de Remedio Amoris (a work that has perished); at a maturer age, Virgil's Eneid into Scottish heroics; a translation popular till superfeded, at the close of the last century, by others more elegant, not more faithful, nor perhaps more spirited 431. His original poems are King Hart and the Palace of Honour, allegories too much protracted, though marked throughout with a vivid invention; but his most valuable performances are prologues to the books of his Eneid, stored occasionally with exquisite description. As a poet, he is inferior to Dunbar, neither fo tender nor fo various in his powers. His tafte and judgment are less correct, and his verses less polished. The one describes by selecting, the other by accumulating images, but with fuch fuccefs, that his prologues descriptive of the winter folftice, of a morning and evening in fummer, transport the mind to the seasons they delineate, teach it to fympathife with the poet's, and to watch with him the minutest changes that nature exhibits. These are the earliest poems professedly descriptive; but in description Scottish poets are rich beyond belief. Their language swells with the subject, depicting nature with the brightest and happieft felection of colours. The language of modern poetry is more intelligible, not fo luxuriant, nor the terms fo harmonious. Descrip-

⁴²¹ It was finished in fixteen months; and till Dryden's appeared, feems to have been received as a standard translation; till then it was certainly the best translation.

tion is still the characteristic, and has ever been the principal excellence of Scottish poets; on whom, though grossly ignorant of human nature, the poetical mantle of Dunbar and Douglas has fuccessively descended. 432

In England.

Poetry revived in England'under Henry VIII., and was cultivated by his courtiers as a vehicle of gallantry; but by none more than the brave but unfortunate Surry, who had taste to relish the Italian poets, and judgment to reject their affected, though splendid conceits. His sonnets were once celebrated, but are now neglected; unjuftly neglected, for their merit is confiderable, and their influence imparted a new character to English poetry. Surry was inspired by a genuine passion, and his sonnets breathe the unaffected dictates of nature and love. Tenderness predominates in the fentiment, eafe and elegance diftinguish the language. From these sonnets, the earliest specimens of a polished diction and refined fenfibility, fucceeding poets difcovered the capacity and fecret powers of the English tongue. They are not numerous, though fufficient to effect a reformation in poetry, nor difcriminated always from the fonnets of others; but of those whose authencity is certain, the complaint uttered in confinement at Windfor, touches irrefiftibly the heart with woe. Blank verse, now peculiar to English poetry, had been

⁴³² Other poets of inferior reputation flourished during this period in Scotland; but it is the purport of this history to record the progreffive improvements, not the stationary merit of poetry.

recently attempted in Italian and Spanish, and was first transplanted by Surry into some translations from Virgil, which discover rather the concinnity of rhyme than the swelling progression of blank verse. As a specimen of his poetry, our limits only admit of a sonnet, selected for the variety, choice, and compression of its images.

The foote feafon that bud, and bloome fourth bringes,
With grene hath cladde the hyll, and eke the vale,
The nightingall with fethers new the finges;
The turtle to her mate hath told her tale;
Somer is come for every fpray now fpringes,
The hart hath hunge hys olde head on the pale,
The bucke in brake his winter coate he flinges;
The fiftes flete with new reparyed fcale:
The adder all her flough away fine flynges,
The fwift fwallow purfueth the flyes fmalle,
The bufy bee her honey now the mynges;
Winter is worne that was the flowers bale.
And thus I fee among these pleasant thynges,
Eche care decayes, and yet my forrow sprynges.

In the refinement of poetry, the elder Wyat is supposed to have co-operated with Surry, as both studied in the Italian school 433; but he follows at a submissive distance, with an unpliant genius and untunable numbers. His verses are amatory and satirical, or rather didactic; but in the first, as his passion was sictitious, its utterance is harsh. With the taste he adopted the affectation of the Italians, and in his sonnets labours perpetually at some hopeless conceit. Yet his numbers burst sometimes into melody, and his satires exhibit, with

much obscurity, an occasional strength and propriety of thought and diction.

Dramatic Poetry.

Dramatic poetry was attempted after the revival of letters, or rather mysteries of the church were converted in the universities into regular dramas. Plays on historical or religious subjects, were composed in Latin for the students to perform; and the authors probably fucceeded better in their observance of the rules, than in their imitation of the divine spirit of the Grecian stage. These spectacles could never be popular; but occasional interludes were written in English 434, and performed by fludents in the inns of court, or by itinerant minftrels in the halls of the nobility. The poetry is worthless, memorable only as the first productions of the English drama 435. Philotus, a comedy in the Scottish language, is ascribed to the close of this period, and some interludes were written by Lindfay of the Mount, a Scottish poet, whose laurels are faded. 436

Church Mufic.

The imitative arts, as their primary object is the gratification either of fense or pasfion, are not necessarily allied to religion, to which occasionally they have been rendered fubfervient; and accordingly some are rejected by the orthodox, others retained as inftrumental to devotion. Painting and sculpture are profcribed as idolatrous, poetry and

435 Warton, vol. ii. p. 366.

⁴³⁴ Vide one in the Harleian Miscell. vol. i. p. 98.

⁴³⁵ Pinkerton's Ancient Scot. Poems, Pref. 110. Lindfay's Remains are in the Banatyne Manuscript. I have not found that they are of much value.

music cherished as facred; nor did the Reformation produce in England an immediate alteration on the music of the church. Counterpoint, the invention of a former period, was improved, in the prefent, particularly by the introduction of difcords, to provoke attention, or relieve from fatiety. The plain chants of the church were felected by composers, as a basis for florid counterpoint and figurative harmony, recent improvements, conftructed on the continent with all the artificial perplexity of fugue and canon. Such artifices as the last were difregarded, or feldom adopted by English composers, whose masses and other choral productions are characterized as grave in their style, and according to the rules at that time established, correct in their harmony, free from imitations, and marked with an originality apparently national. Compared with the recent perfection of music, they are deficient however in measure and melody, defign and contrivance; but perhaps it is the misfortune of music, that its refinement terminates in a fastidious delicacy, unwilling to be pleased, and in its desire of novelty rejecting whatever has already delighted 437. The productions of these early masters have preserved their names; and now that flattery is filent, Taverner, Shepherd, and Parfons, have obtained, in the annals of music, the precedence of their sovereign. Henry VIII. from the skill of a performer, aspired to the merit of an original composer; his inftruments were the recorder, the flute, the

⁴⁷ Burney's Hift. of Music. vol. ii. pp. 461. 466. 507. 535. virginals;

virginals; and his genius fometimes condescended to furnish his courts with ballads, and his chapel with masses 438. His name is forgotten among poets, but his music seems to have survived his reign; yet of two productions, a motet and an anthem, ascribed to his finger, the one from its mediocrity is admitted to be genuine, the other is supposed to exceed the capacity of a royal mufician. 439

Secular mulic.

It is difficult to fpeak with precision of secular mufic, of which the written specimens are few, and the traditionary antiquity vague and uncertain. Popular melodies were originally fimple, acquired with eafe, and transmitted without the affiftance of notation, till adopted by composers, disfigured by a multiplicity of new variations, and fo perplexed by a redundancy of notes, that their difficulty constituted their only merit. Such was the employment of fecular compofers, who, inftead of attempting invention in air or melody, produced, it is faid, from fimple fongs. an elaborate affemblage, to the execution of which the skill and dexterity of modern performers are confessedly unequal 440. The melodies peculiar to Scotland escaped such torture, and some of them, from their style or the subject of their verses, are ascribed by conjecture to the present. period 441. New fongs are adapted daily to former tunes, and whatever be the antiquity of Scottish

⁴³⁸ Herbert's Hift. p. 2. 13. Hollinshed, vol. ii. p. 806. Burney, vol.iii. p. 1. Hawkins's Hift. Mus. vol.ii.

⁴¹⁰ Burney, vol.ii. p. 553.

⁴⁴¹ Arnot's Hiftory of Edinburgh, App. 8.

music, (ancient it is, and perhaps the produce of different periods,) the poetry is recent; but conjectures are not admissible as a substitute for historical certainty.

The improvement of fecular music was per- Musical haps retarded by the imperfect construction of instrumufical inftruments. The organ, I believe, was appropriated to the church; the clavicord, virginals, and harp, to the chamber. Wind inftruments are described as of various constructions: but it is observable of instruments played with keys, or blown by reeds, that the intonation is defective, not susceptible of nice modulation 442. The viol was in much request; but its finger board was fretted, its intonation limited; and it is afferted that, before the adoption of the violin, perfection in harmony was unknown to mankind, 433

⁴⁴⁷ Figures of these instruments are to be found in Hawkins's Hift. vol. ii.

⁴⁴³ Burney, vol. ii. p. 553.

HISTORY

GREAT BRITAIN.

BOOK VI.

CHAPTER VI.

The Hiftory of Commerce, Corn, and Shipping in Great Britain, from the Accession of Henry VII. A. D. 1485. to the Accession of Edward VI. A. D. 1547.

THE accession of Henry VII. to the throne Accession of England was an event favourable to the of Henry commerce of that kingdom in feveral ways. It to trade, put an end to a long and ruinous civil war, which had thrown every thing into confusion, and inflamed the minds of one half of the people with the most violent hatred against the other; a situation in which commerce could not flourish . It

placed on the throne a prince in the prime of life, of a found and good understanding, improved by the observations he had made in foreign countries, and fully convinced of the great, importance of commerce, both to the crown and to the people, by increasing the revenues of the one and the riches of the other. Accordingly we find, that Henry was no fooner feated on the throne, than he began to turn his thoughts to trade, to remove the obstructions by which it had been interrupted, and to procure the English merchants and mariners a free course to and favourable reception in all parts of the world. With this view he cultivated peace with all his neighbours, and concluded commercial treaties with almost all the princes and states of Europe. Nothing can give our readers a more distinct idea of the trade of England in this reign, than by laying before them the fubftance of those commercial treaties in as few words as possible.

Commercial treaty with France.

The trade between England and France had been interrupted in the late reign, and Henry made fo much hafte to terminate all disputes with that kingdom by a truce, in which freedom of trade and commercial intercourse were stipulated, that it was proclaimed in the beginning of October, A. D. 1485. even before his coronation². This truce, which was only for one year, was prolonged for three years more, January 17th, A. D. 1486., with additional securities for the freedom of trade.³

² Rym. tom.xii. p. 277. .

About the fame time Henry dispatched his with almoner into Italy, with a very extensive commif- Italy. fion, to negociate commercial treaties with the King of Naples, and with all the other princes and flates of that country. In that commission. he discovers that he had very just and liberal sentiments of trade, as beneficial to all nations, by procuring them what they wanted in exchange for what they could spare. "The earth (fays he) " being the common mother of all mankind, what " can be more pleafant and more humane than to " communicate a portion of all her productions to " all her children by commerce ?" We have no particular account of the fuccess of this commisfion, but it could not be unfuccessful. The maritime flates of Italy could have no reason to decline a commercial intercourse with England.

This prudent prince loft no time to accommo- Scotland. date all differences with his nearest neighbours the Scots, and to lay open the trade between the two British kingdoms, for their mutual benefit. concluded a truce for three years from July 1st, A. D. 1486., with James III.; the chief object of which was, befides the ceffation of all hostilities by fea and land, to procure the free admission and friendly treatment of the merchants and mariners of the one country in the other 5. He had it also much at heart to establish a more cordial peace between the two nations, by feveral intermarriages between the two royal families. But in that he

⁴ Rym. tom. xii. p. 283. VOL. XII.

was unhappily disappointed, by the untimely death of King James.

Florence.

Henry granted, June 8th, A.D. 1486., a free-conduct to Michael De Seprello, Mark Stroze, and allother merchants of Florence, for ten years, to come into his dominions with their fhips, to difpose of their goods as they pleased, to purchase and export wool, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and other merchandize, without danger or molestation, upon paying the usual customs. Such a safe-conduct was not unnecessary, as the Italian and other foreign merchants had been often insulted and plundered in the ports of England.

Britanny.

Henry, in the fame first year of his reign, concluded a commercial treaty with Francis Duke of Britanny, (who had been his protector in his distress,) to continue in force during their joint lives, and no longer. In this treaty many stipulations are made that discover a thorough knowledge of trade, and an anxious concern to render it mutually beneficial to the subjects of the contracting parties.

With Burgundy.

A fimilar treaty was made about the fame time with Maximilian King of the Romans, as guardian to his infant fon Philip Duke of Burgundy and Brabant and Earl of Flanders. The object and stipulations in this were the same with those in all other commercial treaties, and a very great trade was carried on between England and the Low Countries.

Frym. tom. xii. p. 300. 7 Ibid. p. 303. 1bid. p. 320. The

The Italian and other foreign merchants paid Reduction double custom in England on goods they im- of cusported and exported, which was no fmall difcouragement to trade. Though Henry certainly loved money too well, and was not very apt to exact less than his right, he wisely considered, that by lowering the cuftoms payable by foreign merchants, he would encourage a greater number of them to frequent his ports, and thereby rather increase than diminish his revenues. He made the experiment, and granted, February 18th, A.D. 1488., to the merchants of Venice, Florence, Genoa, Lucca, and of all other Italian cities, for three years, a confiderable abatement of the cuftoms on fome articles of export °. We are not particularly informed of the fuccess of this experiment; but we know that the commercial intercourse between England and Italy was at this time very great, and that the Italian merchants took off great quantities of English cloth, lead, tin, &c. for which they returned velvets, filks, gold lace, with the spices and other precious commodities of the east. 10

Henry concluded two commercial treaties with With John King of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, A.D. 1490., by which he procured feveral privileges to his subjects who traded to these countries, and particularly to the English fishers on the coasts of Iceland and Norway ". In a word, this active, intelligent prince had the interest of commerce so

Denmark.

⁹ Rym. tom. xii. p. 335.

¹⁰ Anderson's History of Commerce, vol. i. p. 304.

¹¹ Rym. tom. xii. p. 374. 381.

much at heart, that in the four first years of his reign he renewed old, or formed new commercial treaties with almost all the princes and states of Europe, and thereby procured his trading subjects a favourable reception and friendly treatment in all places, which revived the trade of England from that languor and decline into which it had fallen by the confusions of the late times.

Commercial laws.

This was not the only method by which Henry VII. contributed to revive and increase the trade of England. He procured feveral laws to be made to promote the same patriotic purpose. The greatest part of the foreign trade of England had hitherto been carried on by foreigners in foreign bottoms. Henry was fenfible that this prevented the increase of English ships and English failors; and to remedy this in part, he procured a law to be made in his first parliament, that no Gascony or Guienne wines (to which the English had been long accustomed, and of which he knew they were very fond) should be imported into any part of his dominions, except in English, Irish, or Welsh ships, navigated by English, Irish, or Welsh men, which obliged them to build ships and go to sea, or to want their favourite liquor 12. This law was enforced and enlarged by an act made in the third parliament of Henry VII. A.D. 1487., to which the following preamble was prefixed: "That where great minish-" ing and decay hath been now of late time " of the navy of this realm of England, and

idleness of the mariners within the same, by the " which this noble realm, within fhort process of "time without reformation be had therein, shall of not be of ability, nor of strength and power to " defend itself." To prevent this, it was enacted, that no wines of Gascony and Guienne, or woads of Tholouse, should be imported into England, except in ships belonging to the King. or fome of his fubjects; and that all fuch wines and woads imported in foreign bottoms should be forfeited 13. From this act we may observe. that Henry VII. fo early as A.D. 1487., had fhips of his own, which he either employed in trade, or freighted to his merchants; a practice which he purfued during his whole reign, by which he gained much money, while he increafed the shipping, failors, and trade of his dominions.

A few years before the accession of Henry VII. Discovea spirit of maritime enterprize and adventure, for ries. the discovery of newand unknown countries, had fprung up in some parts of Europe, which soon produced very great and furprifing effects. The Portuguese in particular, animated and directed by their intelligent fovereign John II., attempted to discover a passage by sea to the East-Indies, to obtain a share in the trade of those countries, which had enriched the Venetians and other Italian states. In this attempt they failed along and explored all the west coasts of Africa as far as the Cape of Good Hope, which they reached

13 4 Hen. VII. c. 10.

A.D. 1487.; but there they stopped short, and proceeded no further in their discoveries for several years.

Christopher Columbus.

In the mean time an extraordinary man had reasoned himself into a persuasion that there was a great continent and many islands beyond the Atlantic Ocean, and had formed the bold defign of attempting the discovery of that New World. This was the juftly celebrated Christopher Columbus, one of the most adventurous, intelligent, and fagacious failors that ever lived, to whom mankind are indebted for bringing one-half of the world acquainted with the other. Though Columbus was fully convinced himfelf, he knew it would not be eafy to convince others of the existence of fuch a country, and that he could not attempt the discovery of it without the aid of some powerful prince or ftate. Being a Genoese by birth, he made his first application to the republic of Genoa, A.D. 1482; but that state declined embarking in the enterprize. He next applied to John II. King of Portugal, whom he knew to be intent on making discoveries. King John received him favourably, and feemed inclined to engage in the undertaking; but referred him to a committee of his council, with whom he was to fettle all preliminaries. With this committee he had many meetings; they made many objections, and asked many questions, to which he returned answers with unsuspecting frankness. When they had obtained, as they imagined, all the information he was capable of giving, they privately fitted out a ship to make the discovery. Columbus.

Columbus, juftly irritated at this ungenerous attempt to deprive him of the honour and profit of his project, which had cost him so much thought, expence, and toil, left the court of Portugal in difgust, A.D. 1484.14

court of Spain, and fent his brother Bartholo-brother to mew into England, to folicit the means of attempting the proposed discovery, A. D. 1485. Bartholomew was unfortunately taken by pirates on his passage, who stripped him of every thing, and chained him to the oar. At length he made his escape, and arrived in England, A.D. 1489., almost naked, and emaciated by his sufferings. In this fituation, without credentials, without money, and without friends, he could not procure access to the King or his ministers; but endeavoured to fupport himself by making maps and sea charts. When he had recovered his health, and could make a decent appearance, he prefented a map of the world to the King, which procured him an audience of that prince, and an opportunity of explaining the commission he had received from his brother. Henry heard him with attention, examined all circumstances, and thinking his success probable, he agreed to his propofals, and fent him back with an invitation to his brother to come

Not yet discouraged, he next repaired to the Sends his

to England; but before Bartholomew arrived in Spain, his brother Christopher had failed on his fecond voyage to the islands he had discovered in the first 15. Thus it was by the misfortunes of Bartholomew Columbus, and not by the avarice of Henry VII., that the English lost the honour of being the first discoverers of the New World: but it may be justly doubted whether this was any real loss to them, or their posterity. Spain doth not seem to have gained either honour, power, population, or prosperity of any kind, but rather to have been a loser in all these respects by the discovery.

Discovery of Newfoundland,

But though Henry and his subjects were thus deprived of the honour of being the first discoverers of the New World, they were determined to have a share in the discovery. John Cabot, a Venetian, had refided feveral years in Briftol as a merchant and mariner, in which last capacity he had acquired great knowledge by many Having heard of the fame and fuccess vovages. of Columbus, he prefented propofals to Henry VII., for attempting fimilar discoveries. His propofals were readily accepted, and the King granted letters patent, March 5th, A.D. 1496., to him and his three fons, Lewis, Sebaftian, and Sanctius, to fail with five ships under English colours for the discovery of unknown countries, which had never been visited by any Christians, and granting to them and their heirs all the countries they discovered, to be held of the crown of England, referving to himfelf and his heirs a fifth part of the nett profits 16. Besides this, he fitted out a gallant ship for this expedition at his own expence, and fome merchants of London and Briftol provided four fmaller veffels. With this little fleet John Cabot failed from Briftol infpring,

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A.D. 1497., and directing his course to the north-west, on June 24th he discovered the island of Newfoundland, and foon after the island of St. John. He then failed down to Cape Florida. and returned to Bristol with a good cargo and three natives of the countries he had discovered on board. He was graciously received, and knighted by Henry on his return 17. From this well-attested account it appears, that the English were the first discoverers of the continent of America; and therefore, according to the political casuistry of those times, had a better title than any other European nation to the possession of that quarter of the globe 18. That title, however, at the best, is very questionable. Though Henry VII. was thus disposed to en- commer-

discoveries, he was not the less attentive to the concerns of commerce nearer home. A mifunderstanding having arisen between him and Philip Duke of Burgundy and Earl of Flanders, A.D. 1493., all the Flemings were banished from England, and all the English from Flanders, and a total flop was put to the trade between thefe two countries. This was equally difagreeable and diffressful to the people of both countries, who had long carried on a great trade with one another, to their mutual advantage.

courage and affift his fubjects in making foreign cial treaty.

This pernicious interruption of trade was not of long duration. A very correct and comprehensive commercial treaty, between Henry and Philip

Hackluyt, vol.iii. p. 4, &c. Purchas's Pilgrims, vol.iii. p. 461, &c. See Campbell's Lives of the Admirals, vol. i. p. 336. 3d edit.

Archduke of Austria, and sovereign of the Netherlands, was figned at London, February 24th, A.D. 1496., in which every precaution was used to render the intercourse between the subjects of the two princes fecure, permanent, and profitable to all concerned 19. It was called intercurfus magnus, (the great commercial treaty,) and gave no little joy to the merchants and manufacturers of both countries. When the English returned to Antwerp (to which they had removed their factory from Bruges a few years before), they were conducted into that city in triumph, and were received with every possible demonstration of joy.

liament.

Act of par- On this occasion a violent contest broke out between the merchants refiding in the capital, who had been long incorporated under different names, and now called themselves The Company of Merchant Adventurers of London, and the merchants, who refided in other cities and towns, who called themselves The Merchant Adventurers of England. The London Company had been long accustomed to impose a kind of tax or composition on the English merchants refiding in other places, for liberty to buy and fell in the great fairs of Flanders, Brabant, and other countries on the continent. This tax was at first only half an old noble (3s. 4d.), and was demanded by the London merchants, who then called themselves The Fraternity of St. Thomas Becket, on a religious pretence, to enable them to do honour to their favourite faint, and thereby gain his protection. But by degrees this imposition

was raifed fo much, that it now amounted to twenty pounds, to the great discouragement of trade. The merchant adventurers therefore, who refided in the out-ports, applied to parliament for a redrefs of this grievance, and an act was made A.D. 1496., reducing that fine to ten merks sterling. 20

Henry VII. still continued to encourage the Commertrade of his fubjects by new commercial treaties cial treaty. with foreign flates, and even with particular towns. He concluded fuch a treaty with the magistrates of Riga in Livonia A.D. 1498., in which it was flipulated, that the English should pay no tolls or cuftoms in the port of Riga, and that the merchants of Riga should pay the same tolls and customs in the ports of England with other merchant strangers 21. They also engaged to remit a debt of 10,637 gold nobles due to them by England. The ftipulations in this treaty were very unequal, and fo were the contracting parties.

It would be tedious to mention, all the com- Henry VII. mercial treaties of Henry VII. It will therefore to trade. be fufficient to remark, that, in his negotiations and treaties with foreign princes and flates, he never forgot the concerns of commerce, or neglected to procure fome advantage to his mercantile subjects. He was particularly complaifant to the citizens and merchants of London, to whom he communicated the earliest intelligence of all important events and transactions; and by the punctual payment of his debts his credit in the city was unbounded. He even lent confide-

²⁰ Stat. 12 Hen. VII. C.

²¹ Rym, tom. xii. p. 701.

rable sums of money to merchants, to enable them to extend their trade, and sometimes he became a partner in their adventures, and received his proportion of the profits. 22

Weights and meafures.

Henry VII. was no less attentive to the internal than to the external or foreign trade of his dominions, and procured feveral wife laws to be made, for regulating their commercial intercourse with one another. Of these it will be sufficient to mention only one, whose falutary effects were extensive and of long duration. The great diverfity of weights and measures in different parts of England was very perplexing and inconvenient, and feveral laws had been made to reduce them to uniformity; but inveterate custom had hitherto proved too ftrong for all thefe laws. An act was made therefore in the fourth parliament of Henry VII. A.D. 1494., which promifed to be more effectual, because greater care was taken to fecure its immediate execution. It was enacted, "That unto the knights and citizens of every " fhire and city, affembled in this present parlia-" ment, barons of the cinque ports, and certain " burgeffes of burgh towns, before they depart " from this present parliament, be delivered one " of every weight and measure, which now our "Sovereign Lord hath caused to be made of " brafs, for the commonwealth of all his subjects " and lieges within this his realm of England, " according to the King our Sovereign Lord's " flandard of his exchequer of weights and mea-" fures." These knights, citizens, and burgeffes,

²² Campbell, vol. i. p. 330.

are directed to deliver these brass weights and measures to the mayors and bailiffs of the cities and towns which they reprefented, according to a schedule annexed to the act, containing their names, in number forty-three. The inhabitants of all these cities and towns, and the districts around them, are commanded to provide themfelves before the feaft of St. John Baptist with weights and measures, exactly agreeable to those brass standards, and sealed with the letter H. crowned, and from thenceforward to use no other weights or measures. The mayors and bailiffs in the feveral cities and towns are required to call in all the weights and measures of the people within the jurisdictions twice a-year, to examine them by the standards, to break and burn such as were found defective, and to fine their proprietors, for the first offence, 6s. 8d.; for the fecond, 13s. 4d.; and for the third, 20 shillings and the punishment of the pillory 23. Though the King and parliament had been at great pains and nolittle expence in making this law and providing for its execution, it was foon after found that a mistake had been committed, and that the weights and measures which had been sent to the several cities and towns were not exactly agreeable to the ftandards in the exchequer. This miftake was rectified by an act made by the next parliament 1496. By that act the mayors and bailiffs of the cities and towns to which weights and measures had been fent, were commanded to return them to the exchequer, there to be broken in pieces

and new ones more correct to be fent in their room. While these laws were strictly executed they were not inessectual. But as the strict execution of them was attended with no little trouble, and various inconveniencies to the magistrates of towns and cities, it was gradually relaxed, and the former irregularities in weights and measures gradually returned.

Colonies.

Though Sir John Cabot had discovered the ifles of Newfoundland and St. John and the coaft of North America, and had taken possession of them in the name of the King of England fo early as A.D. 1497., no attempt was made to establish colonies in any of these countries. But Henry VII. foon after began to entertain thoughts of forming colonies in the New World, or at least to encourage his subjects to form them. This appears from a commission which he granted A.D. 1501. to Hugh Elliot and Thomas Ashurst merchants in Briftol, John Gunfalus and Francis Fernandus natives of Portugal, " To fail with as many ships and mariners as they thought " proper, with English colours, into the parts and countries of the eaftern, western, southern, and northern feas, to discover, recover, and investigate any islands, coasts, and countries of heathen and infidel parts of the world, and tofet up the King's banners and enfigns in whatever town, caftle, island, or continent they see should discover, and to hold the same for our use as our lieutenants. 2. Whenever any difcovery shall be made, it is our will that men and women from Englandbe freely permitted to " fettle 16

"fettle therein, and to improve the fame, under the protection of these grantees 24." From hence it appears, that it was the intention of these adventurers to establish a colony in the country they hoped to discover, and that the King approved of their design. What discoveries they made we are not informed, but it is certain they did not plant a colony; and it will afterwards appear that no permanent colony was established by the English in any part of the New World for a whole century after the date of this grant.

Henry VII. was too fond of money not to be a Henry's

friend to trade, which added to his own revenues, treasures. as well as to the riches of his subjects; and there is fufficient evidence that the commerce and wealth of England increased considerably under his government. A cotemporary historian thus concludes his character of Henry VII., "Surely "this good prince did not devour and confume " the fubstance and riches of his realm; for, " by his high policy, he marvelloufly enriched " his realm and himself, and yet left his sub-" jects in high wealth and prosperity. The " proof whereof is manifestly apparent, by the " great abundance of gold and filver yearly " brought into this realm, both in plate, money, " and bullion, by merchants paffing and re-" passing out and into this realm with merchandife, to whom he himself of his own goods lent " money largely, without any gain or profit, to "the intent that merchandife, being of all crafts

Rym. tom. xiii. p. 37.

" the chief arte, to all men both most profitable " and necessary, might be the more plentifuller " used, haunted, and employed in his realms and dominions25." Henry was possessed of those qualities which contribute most effectually to render their possessions rich. He was well acquainted with all the arts and pretences of fqueezing money from his subjects, and exacted whatever he pretended to be his right with unrelenting rigour; at the fame time he was an anxious wakeful economist, and kept most exact accounts of all his expences, even the most trifling 26. But with all his arts of getting and faving money, he could not have accumulated fo great a mass of treasure as he left in his coffers at his death, if his fubjects, particularly his mercantile fubjects, had not been opulent for those times. The accounts we have of the amount of these treasures are very different. Lord Chief Justice Coke affirms. that they amounted to the enormous fum of five millions three hundred thousand pounds 27. Sir Robert Cotton states them at four millions and a half, befides wrought plate, jewels, and rich furniture 28. These accounts, though seemingly well attefted, are hardly credible. One would rather be inclined to think that there was not fo much money in the kingdom in those times, before any of the precious metals from the New World had reached England. The account given by Lord Bacon (which hath been

27 4 Institut. ch. 35.

²⁵ Hall, Hen. VII. f. 61. 26 See Append. No. iii. No. iv.

²⁸ Answer to the Reasons for Foreign Wars, p. 53.

cial laws.

already mentioned) is more moderate, and probably nearer the truth.

James IV., King of Scots, the contemporary Trade of and fon-in-law of Henry VII., was an intelligent and active prince, and fludied to promote the prosperity of his subjects by promoting trade. With this view many laws were made in his reign, Commerall of them well intended; but as trade was then very imperfectly understood, few of them were either wife or ufeful, and too many of them impracticable or pernicious. Among the useful laws may be reckoned those for the uniformity of weights and measures, if they could have been carried into execution29; but though these laws were often renewed, they were never effectual. The importance of the fisheries was well underflood. This appears from the preambles to those acts, obliging all cities, towns, prelates, and barons, to fit out buffes for the fisheries, of twenty tons and upwards, with a certain length of lines and nets, and a certain number of hands30; nor were these acts ineffectual, as the Scots fisheries were at this time flourishing and lucrative.

Wherever there is trade, and imposts on goods exported and imported, there will be fmuggling, or attempts to avoid the payment of these imposts, unless the risk of loss can be made greater and more certain than the prospect of gain, by making fuch attempts. To prevent fmuggling, and to fecure the payment of the king's customs, was the object of feveral flatutes in this period.

9 Black Acts, James IV. Act 131.

4º Ibid. Act 81.

These statutes were very simple, and probably not very effectual. By an act of the first parliament of James IV., A.D. 1488., "It was statute " and ordainit, that in time to come, all manner " of ships, strangers, and others, come to the king's free burrows, fic as Dumbarton, Irvine, Wigtoun, Kircudbright, Renfrew, and other " free burrows of the realm, to pay their dues " and customs, and take their cocket as effiers 31." The ports particularly mentioned in this act are now, and were then, very inconfiderable in comparison of many others which are not mentioned. But their inhabitants were zealous partizans of that predominant party, which had lately flain their fovereign, and this first parliament of James IV. was composed wholly of the heads of that party. To fuch a degree will faction sometimes influence public deliberations.

So imperfectly was commerce understood at this time in both the British kingdoms, that they imagined they could bring the balance of trade in their own favour, and add daily to their stock of gold and silver, merely by making laws to compel all merchants, foreigners as well as natives, to import a certain quantity of coin or bullion, in every ship, in proportion to the value of the other goods; to lay out all that coin and bullion, together with all the money they received for their goods, in purchasing the commodities of the country; and not to export any gold or silver in coin or bullion, under the severest penal-

³¹ Black Acts, James IV. Act 11.

ties. Such laws were made both in England and Scotland in this period32; but they ferved only to betray the ignorance of those who made them. and could not be executed. When the value of the imports into any country exceeds the value of the exports, the balance must be paid in the precious metals, in spite of a thousand laws to the contrary. By another law, equally abfurd and hurtful to trade, no ships were suffered to fail from any port in Scotland from the first of November to the first of February. Sailing in the three winter months was esteemed too dangerous to be permitted. 33

The staple of the trade of Scotland was feveral staple. times changed. It had been anciently fixed at Campvere in Zealand, whose earl married a daughter of James I. From thence it was fettled at Bruges in Flanders, which in the fifteenth century became the center of trade to almost all the nations of Europe. It was removed from thence by act of parliament to Middleburgh in Zealand, where it did not continue, but was restored to its ancient station at Campvere. The fenate and magistrates of Middleburgh never defifted from importuning James IV., and after his death the Duke of Albany, to have the staple returned to their town; and having gained the fecretary, Mr. Panter, by a promife of three hundred gold crowns, they entertained great hopes of fuccess34: but in this they were difappointed. Secretary Panter acquainted them, that when the affair was debated in council he

^{- 32} James IV. Act 30.

^{3;} Epist. R.R.S. tom.i. p. 276.

was ill of a fever; and that the people of Campvere had made fuch interest to prevent so precious a morfel, which had made fo much enriched their town, being torn from them, that he imagined they would prevail 35. He was not mistaken. When the city of Antwerp was in its greatest glory, the emporium of almost all the nations of Europe, the senate and magistrates applied to James V., A.D. 1539., to fix the staple in their city, promifing peculiar privileges and immunities to his fubjects. The people of Campvere, alarmed at this application of fuch formidable rivals, exerted all their influence to retain what they had long enjoyed, and of which they knew the value. To determine this question King James fummoned a convention of merchants from all the trading towns of the kingdom; and finding the members of this convention almost equally divided in their opinions, he granted every one liberty to do what he thought most for his advantage 36. On this permission some of the merchants carried their staple commodities to Antwerp; but as they did not meet with the favour and encouragement they expected, they gradually returned to Campyere. All this competition between fo many towns feems to indicate that the trade of Scotland in this period was not inconfiderable.

Confervator.

Wherever the staple was fixed, an officer, called the Confervator of the Scots Privileges, was stationed, with authority to protect the privileges that had been granted to the Scots mer-

³⁵ Epist. R.R.S. tom. i. p. 284. 36 Ibid. tom ii. p. 55.

chants, and to determine all disputes that arose among those merchants, with the affiftance of four of them as his affesfors. By act of parliament A. D. 1503., the merchants are prohibited from profecuting one another before any other judges than the confervator and his affesfors 37. By another act of the same parliament, the confervator is commanded to come to Scotland once every year, or to fend a procurator fufficiently instructed to give an account of his transactions. and to answer to any complaints that have been made against him. 38

The accession of Henry VIII. to the throne of Accession England was no difadvantage to trade, though he vill. fadid not understand it so well nor attend to it so vourable to much as his father had done. He was young, oftentatious, and fond of pleasure; possessed of a prodigious mass of treasure, and unboundedly expensive in his household, drefs, tournaments, difguifings, and diversions of all kinds. He was too well imitated in this fplendid expensive way of living by those of the nobility and men of fortune, who frequented the court, and aspired to the notice and favour of the youthful monarch. This occafioned an uncommon demand for many coftly commodities, as clothes of gold and filver, velvets, filks, embroideries, jewels, plate, wines, spices, &c. and that demand was supplied by trade. This trade was for fome time chiefly carried on by the merchants of Venice, Genoa, and Florence, to whom the strongest affurances were given of

³⁷ Black Acts, James IV. c. 116.

³⁸ Ibid. c. 117.

fafety and friendly treatment in the ports of England 39. By degrees, however, these foreigners became so unpopular, that it was hardly in the power of government to protect them; and this trade came gradually into the hands of the English merchants. We may form some idea of the great importation of cloth of gold, cloth of silver, vandekin, velvet, damask, sattin, sarcenet, sarston, camblet, and other cloths of silk, and of silk and gold and silver, in the beginning of this reign, from an act of parliament A.D. 1513., in which it is said, "that three or four thousand pieces of these cloths were commonly imported in one ship 40." This trade was more profitable to the merchants than to their country.

Circle of trade enlarged.

That spirit of mercantile adventure which had forung up in the preceding reign still continued and increased, and the circle of trade was gradually enlarged. The trade of the English in the Mediterranean was become fo confiderable. that it was found necessary to establish a conful in the island of Chios in the Archipelago, A.D. 1513.41 Though no English colonies were as yet settled in any part of the New World, it appears that the merchants carried on a trade with these countries, and even with the islands in the West Indies, which had been seized and settled by the Spaniards; and that they had agents refiding in some of these islands, particularly in the great island of Cuba, for the management of their trade 42. Many voyages

³⁹ Rym. tom. xiii. p. 271.

⁴º 4 Hen. VIII. c. 6.

⁴¹ Rym. tom. xiii. p. 353.

⁴² Hackluyt, vol. ii. p. 500.

were undertaken in this reign for the discovery of unknown countries, in order to enlarge the circle of trade; but the accounts we have of thefe voyages are very fhort and imperfect. It appears that Henry VIII. fitted out a fleet, for making discoveries in the South Sea, A.D. 1516., and gave the command of it to Sir Thomas Pert. Vice-admiral of England, and the famous Sebaftian Cabot; but all we know farther of this expedition is, that it was unfuccefsful, owing to the cowardice of Sir Thomas Pert 43. Mr. Thorne. of Briftol, was one of the greatest merchants and boldest adventurers in England in this reign. He had not only factors refiding in Cuba, but he fent agents in the Spanish fleets, furnished with great fums of money, to bring him exact descriptions and charts of the seas, rivers, and lands, vifited by these fleets 44. Mr. Thorne, by his letters, earnestly intreated Henry VIII. not to be discouraged by the ill success of his first attempts to make discoveries, but to persevere and to direct his refearches towards the north, for which his dominions were most conveniently fituated. He gave the King also some very prudent advices for conducting his future voyages of discovery 45; but what regard was paid to the entreaties and advices we are not informed. Mr. William Hawkins, of Plymouth, father of the celebrated Sir John Hawkins, made three very fuccessful voyages in a ship of his own to the coast of Brazil, and in his passage he traded with

⁴³ Hackluyt, vol. ii. p. 498.

⁴⁵ Ibid. vol. ii. p. 498, 499.

⁴⁴ Ibid. p. 726.

the Negroes of Guinea. Mr. Hawkins, by his good behaviour, became so great a favourite of the Brazilians, that one of their kings came voluntarily with him into England, and being prefented to Henry VIII. at Whitehall, excited great admiration by the strangeness of his dress and appearance 46. Mr. Hore, of London, who was an accomplished gentleman as well as an adventurous merchant, was not fo fortunate as Mr. Hawkins. Having prevailed upon thirty young gentlemen to accompany him in a voyage of discovery, they failed from Gravesend in April A. D. 1536. with two ships, the Trinity and Minion, and about one hundred and twenty men. After a tedious voyage of about two months, they discovered the island of Cape Breton, and some time after, the island since called Newfoundland. They failed along the coasts of that island, endeavouring, but in vain, to gain fome communication with the natives, till their provisions began to fail, and they were by degrees reduced to fuch extreme diffress, that they came to a refolution to determine, by casting lots, which of them should be first facrificed to the preservation of their companions. In that awful moment a French ship approached, which the perishing English immediately affaulted and seized, and, to their inexpressible joy, found her almost loaded with provisions. They removed a sufficient quantity of the provisions into their ships, and set fail for England. They arrived at St. Ives in Cornwall in October the same year; but so emaciated.

that their nearest relations could hardly recognize them ⁴⁷. Other evidence, if it were necessary, might be produced, to prove that the English in this reign enlarged the circle of their trade, by visiting several countries with which they had formerly been unacquainted.

merce by various other methods. He made commercial treaties with almost all the princes and flates of Europe; in which, and in his other treaties, he took care to fecure certain privileges to his mercantile subjects 48. In his reign, and most probably by his influence, several acts of parliament were made for removing all obstructions to navigation out of the great rivers, and for deepening smaller ones, to make them navigable 49. He repaired the harbours of Scarborough, Southampton, and feveral other towns; and on the port of Dover alone he expended between fixty and feventy thousand pounds. He built a great many strong forts at the mouths of rivers, and the most exposed parts of coasts, for the fecurity of shipping and of the country. Great pains were taken in this reign to clear the furrounding feas of pirates; and the King on fome occasions discovered the greatest anxiety for the fafety of his merchants' fhips 50. For the

Henry VIII. endeavoured to encourage com- Hen.VIII. erce by various other methods. He made com- encourage ed trade.

improvement of navigation, the famous maritime guild or fraternity called the Trinity-house of Deptford, was instituted A. D. 1512.; and similar fraternities were soon after established at

⁴⁷ Hackluyt, vol. iii. p. 129. 48 Rym. tom. xiii. paffim.

⁴⁹ Stat. temp. Hen. VIII. 50 Strype's Mem. vol. i. p. 27-33.

Hull and Newcastle-upon-Tyne, for the instruction and examination of pilots, erecting of beacons, light-houses and buoys, and for various purposes, to prevent shipwrecks 53. But it is the peculiar glory of Henry VIII. that he may be ftyled the founder of the royal navy of England by appointing a board of commissioners of the navy, and by erecting storehouses for all manner of naval flores, and making yards and docks at Woolwich and Deptford for building and equipping thips of war. From these and other facts that might have been mentioned, it plainly, appears, that Henry VIII. paid no little attention to trade, and that his endeavours to promote and encourage it were not altogether in vain.

But though the intention of Henry and his ministers were favourable to commerce, their knowledge of it was so imperfect, that not a few of their laws and regulations were rather hurtful than beneficial. Of this it would be easy to give many examples, but a few will be sufficient. What could be more unreasonable in itself, or more obstructive to the freedom of commerce, than that law, which was so frequently renewed and so strongly ensored, against the exportation of gold or silver in coin or bullion, and commanding all native merchants to import a certain quantity of these precious metals in every ship; and obliging foreign merchants to invest all the money they received for the goods they imported in

the commodities of the country 52? Several corporations obtained monopolies by acts of parliament, which must have been hurtful both to trade and manufactures; and they obtained them on very strange suggestions. The bailiffs and burgesses of Bridport in Dorsetshire presented a petition to parliament A.D. 1529., reprefenting that the people of their town had been in use, time out of mind, to make the most part of the great cables, halfers, ropes, and other tackling for the royal navy, and for the most part of all other ships within the realm, by which their town was right well maintained. But that of late years certain evil-disposed persons in the neighbourhood had begun to make cables, halfers, and ropes, by which their town of Bridport was in danger of being ruined, and the prices of cables, halfers, and ropes, were greatly enhanced. The first of these allegations might be true; but the fecond was certainly a most impudent and glaring falsehood. The increase of manufactures could not raise the price of the goods manufactured. It must have had a contrary effect, which was undoubtedly the real grievance of the good people of Bridport. On this false and absurd suggestion, an act was made that all the hemp that grew within five miles of Bridport should be fold only in that town, and that no person within five miles of Bridport should make any cables, halfers, ropes, hilters, &c. on pain of forfeiting all the goods they made⁵³; an act no less imprudent than it was unjust. One other example will be sufficient to

⁵³ Stat. 4 Hen. VII. c. 23. 53 Stat. 21 Hen. VIII. c. 12. Convince

convince us, that very pernicious laws were made in this period, (and perhaps not in this period only,) on very abfurd pretences. The city of Worcefter, the towns of Evesham, Droitwich, Kidderminster, and Bromesgrove, represented to parliament, A. D. 1533., that the faid city and towns were well inhabited, and their inhabitants well maintained, by making woollen cloths of various kinds; but that of late years, divers persons dwelling in the hamlets, towns, and villages of the shire of Worcester, for their own lucre, had begun to exercise cloth-making of all kinds, to the great decay, depopulation, and ruin of the faid city and towns. Upon this representation, an act was made, that no person of any degree in Worcestershire should make any cloth to be fold, except fuch perfons as refided in the city of Worcester, or in the towns of Evesham, Droitwich, Kidderminster, or Bromesgrove 54. That fuch restrictive laws were unfriendly and hurtful both to trade and manufactures is obvious, though it was certainly not the intention of the legislators to hurt them. Good intentions are not fufficient to make good legislators. Prudence and caution to prevent being deceived by interested persons; patient laborious investigation, and a thorough knowledge of the fubject on which the laws are to be made, are no less necessary than good intentions. But notwithflanding these and several other obstructions to trade which might have been mentioned, there is fufficient evidence that the commerce of Eng.

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land was confiderably extended and increased in the reign of Henry VIII.

If commerce was but imperfectly understood in England in this period, it was still more imperfectly understood in Scotland. Several laws relating to trade were made in the reign of James V., but they were all reftrictive, and tended rather to curb than to encourage a spirit for mercantile adventures. None but the inhabitants and freemen of royal boroughs were permitted to engage in trade; and even they were not permitted to engage in it unless they had a certain flock in money or goods 55. While Henry VIII. encouraged his fubjects to undertake long and dangerous voyages for the discovery of unknown countries, James V. made laws to prohibit his fubjects from putting to fea in the three winter months 56. Trade could not flourish under such restrictions.

As money and ships are two great instruments of commerce, without which it cannot be carried on, it is necessary to give a brief account of the state of them in every period of this work.

Though a pound is one of the most common Pound in denominations of money, it never was a real weight and pound in coin, either in gold or filver, in any age or coun- tale the try. Such large and ponderous coins would have fame. been in many respects inconvenient. But for Began to many ages, both in Britain and in other countries, differ. that number of smaller coins which was denominated a pound in computation, or a pound in tale, really contained a pound of filver; and they might have been and frequently were weighed.

⁵⁵ Black Acts, James V. ch. 27. 56 Ibid. ch. 37. 34. 80.

as well as numbered, to afcertain their value. If the number of coins that were denominated a pound in tale did not actually make a pound in weight, an additional number of coins were thrown into the scale to make up the weight. This was a fair and honest practice; the departure from which occasioned many difficulties, mistakes, and impositions in money transactions, both in foreign and domestic trade.

About the beginning of the fourteenth century, Edward I., having exhausted his treasures by his long and expensive wars with Scotland, coined a greater number of pennies, halfpennies, and farthings, out of a pound of silver than formerly; which gave rise to the distinction between the pound in weight and the pound in tale. The difference at first was very small, and hardly perceptible; but it gradually increased in every succeeding reign; and at the accession of Henry VII. the nominal pound, or the pound in tale, was little more than half a real pound in weight, and contained only as much silver as thirty-one shillings of our money at present. 57

Shillings.

Groats, weighing each forty-three grains, had been hitherto the largest filver coins: but Henry VII., A.D. 1504., coined shillings, then commonly called festoons, each weighing 144 grains, equal to three groats, and to twelve pennies. They were fair and beautiful coins for those times; but they are now become so exceedingly rare, that it is imagined that no great numbers of them were coined. 58

58 Folkes on Coins, p. 19. edit. 1763.

⁵⁷ See vol. iv. p. 278, &c. vol. vi. p. 294, &c. vol. viii. p. 345, &c. vol. x. p. 263, &c.

Henry VII. made feveral alterations in the Silver form and devices of the coins of England. In- coins. flead of the full face that appeared on the coins of former kings, and which bore little or no refemblance to the prince intended to be reprefented, his face appears in profile, and bears a great resemblance to his real countenance. Still further to diftinguish his coins from those of preceding or fubfequent kings of the fame name, the number VII. was added immediately after the name; this practice hath been followed by all his fucceffors. He laid afide the open crown of former kings, and appears upon his coins with an arched imperial crown, furmounted by the globe and crofs. To prevent clipping, he caufed a circle to be made at the very edge of his coins. The filver coins of Henry VII. were shillings or festoons, groats, half-groats, pennies, half-pennies, and farthings, of the fame weight and value with those of his two predeceffors, Edward IV. and Richard III.52 Henry VII. coined a great deal of gold as Gold

well as of filver; but his gold coins in general bore the fame names, and were of the fame weight and value with those of his two predeceffors, which have been already described ... He was however the first king of England who coined those large and beautiful pieces of gold called fovereigns, value forty-two shillings of those times, and half-fovereigns, value twentyone shillings; he coined also quadruple sovereigns, weighing each an ounce of gold; but

thefe last were undoubtedly defigned for medals,

and not for current coins 61. The gold coins of Henry VII., as they are enumerated in an act of parliament A. D. 1503., were fovereigns and half-fovereigns, ryals, half-ryals, and quarter-ryals, nobles and half-nobles 62. All the coins of Henry VII., both of gold and filver, were of ftandard purity. He possessed too much money, and loved it too well, to sink its value by too great a number of baser metals.

Henry VIII.

Henry VIII. coined a great deal of money in his long reign. In the former part of it, his coins were of the fame kinds and of the fame weight and fineness with those of his predecessors, which have been described. But towards the end of his reign, after he had fquandered all his father's treafures, the grants he had received from parliament, and the great sums he had derived from the diffolution of the religious houses, he began to diminish his coins both in weight and fineness. This diminution at first was fmall, in hopes perhaps that it would not be perceived; but after he had got into this fatal career, he proceeded by rapid steps to the most pernicious lengths. In the thirty-fixth year of his reign, filver money of all the different kinds was coined, which had only one half filver and the other half alloy. He did not even ftop here; in the last year of his reign he coined money that had only four ounces of filver and eight ounces of alloy in the pound weight; and the nominal pound of this base money was worth only nine shillings and threepence three farthings of our present money 63. He

⁶¹ Leake, p. 182. 62 18 Henry VII. c. 5. 63 M. Folkes, p. 27. began

began to debase his gold coins at the same time, and proceeded by the same degrees. But it would be tedious to follow him in every step. In this degraded and debased condition Henry VIII. left the money of his kingdom to his son and successor Edward VI. This shameful debasement of the money of his kingdom was one of the most imprudent, dishonourable, and pernicious measures of his reign; it was productive of innumerable inconveniencies and great perplexity in business of all kinds, and the restoration of it to its standard purity was found to be a work of great difficulty.

It had long been a great obstruction to trade Interest of and to improvements of every kind, that lending money. money upon interest was declared by the church to be usury, and highly criminal in Christians. This prevented laws being made for regulating the rate of interest; and the money-lenders (many of whom were Jews) took advantage of the neceffity of the borrowers, and exacted most exorbitant interest. They had invented also several curious devices to elude the penalties of the laws against usury. Of these evils many complaints had been made; and by an act of parliament A. D. 1545., the interest of money was fixed at ten per cent.; and if any person took more, he was to forfeit three times the fum lent, the one half to the King, and the other to the informer. In the fame act, the various tricks and devices that had been practifed by the money-lenders, to escape the penalties of the laws against usury, are enumerated and prohibited. 64

64 37 Hen. VIII. c. 9.

338

Scotland.

The coins of Scotland were originally the same with those of England, in weight, purity, and value; and continued to be fo till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when they began to fall a little below them. This difference in the coins of the two British kingdoms gradually increased; and not long after the beginning of our present period. the nominal pound of Scotland was only equal to one-third of the nominal pound of England. This appears with the clearest evidence, from the contract of marriage between King James IV. and the Princess Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII. A.D. 1502. In one article of that contract it is stipulated, that the Princess should be infeoffed in lands of the yearly value of 2000l. English, or 6000 Scots. By another article, King James is bound to pay to his Queen 1000l. Scots, or 500 marks English, yearly, to be disposed of as she pleased 65. As the nominal English pound at that time was equal to thirty-one of our present shillings, the Scots pound, in the beginning of the fixteenth century, was equal to ten shillings and four-pence sterling. But towards the end of this period A.D. 1544., the nominal pound of Scotland had funk to one-fourth of the nominal pound of England. This appears from a contract of marriage between Matthew Earl of Lennox, and the Lady Margaret Douglas, daughter of the Queen-dowager of Scotland by her fecond hufbandthe Earl of Angus, and niece to Henry VIII. By one article in that contract, King Henry engaged to fettle an estate in England on the Earl of

³⁵ Rym. tom.xii. p. 787-791.

Lennox and the Lady Margaret, and their heirs. of the yearly value of 6800 marks Scots, which is equal (fays the record) to 1700 marks English 66. James IV. and V. coined a good deal of money both of gold and filver; for a particular description of which the reader must be referred to the work quoted below '7; the introducing of it here would be tedious, and unfuitable to the defign of general history. It may however be observed. that the Kings of Scotland affumed the arched imperial crown upon their coins about the fame time with the Kings of England; that their coins were not inferior in their fabrication to those of England; and that the gold coins of James V., called bonnet, (because they have a bonnet on the king's head,) were the most elegant and beautiful coins in Europe in those times.

As money was certainly more plentiful in Bri- Expence tain, and the prices of provisions and the other of living. necessaries of life were higher in this than in the preceding period, we have reason to believe that the expence of living was only fix, or rather five times cheaper in nominal pounds than it is at present 68. Various evidences of this might be produced; but one decifive proof will, it is hoped, be thought sufficient. By an act of parliament, A.D. 1545., it was provided, that when the church of a fmall parish, whose benefice did not exceed fix pounds a-year, was fituated within a mile of another church, the fmall parish might be

⁶⁶ Rym. tom. xv. p. 31.

⁶⁷ Numismata Scotize, by Adam de Cardonnel.

See Fleetwood's Chronicon Pretiofum, p.112-120.

annexed to that other church. For this two reafons are affigned: 1ft, That it would fave the expence of keeping up two churches. 2d, That fix pounds a-year was too scanty a living for a parish prieft. And may not the fame thing be faid of five times fix, or thirty pounds at prefent? By another clause in the same act it is provided, that if the parishioners of the small parish annexed, shall within a year raise their benefice to eight pounds a-year, the annexation shall be disfolved; because, in the opinion of this parliament, eight pounds was a competent living for the minister of a fmall parish. And can more be faid of five times eight, or forty pounds a-year in our times? If we wish therefore to form a judgment of the real riches of persons in the different ranks in fociety at two different and diftant periods, we must not only take into the account the quantity of money which they possessed, but chiefly the quantity of all other things which that money could have purchased. Thus, for example, the wages of a common labourer in our present period was only three-pence a-day; but he was really as rich, and could live as well as a labourer in our times who earns fifteen pence a-day. The fame reasoning will hold good with respect to persons in all the other ranks in society. Money is not only a capital article in commerce. but it is a kind of commercial barometer. When money is fcarce it is dear, and all other things are cheap. When money abounds it is cheap, and all other things are dear. This bears hardest upon stipendiaries, who have a certain fixed

fixed income in money; because as money increases, the value of their income gradually decreases and in time becomes quite incompetent.

As ships are no less necessary to foreign and even to coasting commerce than money, the state of shipping requires some of our attention in every period.

The ships that had been formerly employed by the merchants of Britain in foreign trade were in general fmall, many of them under fifty, and few of them above one hundred and fifty tons. A few ships of greater burthen are mentioned by our historians, but they are mentioned as a kind of prodigies 6. But after the discovery of the New World, when more diffant voyages were undertaken, the merchants of England began to build larger and stouter ships. In this they were asfifted and encouraged by Henry VII., who built feveral great ships, which he freighted to the merchants when they were not employed in the public fervice. The ship in which Mr. William Hawkins of Plymouth made three fuccessful voyages to the Brafils and the coasts of Guinea, (the first in 1530.,) is represented as a ship of uncommon magnitude, a flout tall ship, of two hundred and fifty tons. so

But if the merchant ships were now in general larger and better built than those of preceding times, the ships designed for war were, it is said, augmented in size and strength in a much greater proportion. About the beginning of the sixteenth century, the great importance of superiority at

⁶⁹ See vol. x. p. 274.

⁷º Hackluyt, vol. iii. p. 700.

fea was well understood; and the fovereigns of the feveral maritime states of Europe began to vie with each other which of them should have the largest and stoutest ships of war. Henry VIII. built feveral great ships; particularly one named the Regent, of 1000 tons, which required a crew of eight hundred men 71. The King of France had also a number of great ships, of which the Cordelier was by far the greatest, and contained accommodation for eleven hundred men. These two noble ships, the Regent and Cordelier, having grappled with one another in a fea-fight off the port of Brest, A. D. 1512., they were both burned, with every person on board 72. To replace the Regent, Henry VIII. foon after built another ship of the same burthen, but far more fplendid and ornamental, called the Hary Grace Dieu 73. King James IV. of Scotland, we are told, engaged also in this noble contest, and refolved to build a greater ship than any that had yet appeared. Lindfay of Pitscottie, who gives the most circumstantial description of this famous fhip, which was called the Great Michael, fays, that he received his information from Sir Andrew Wood of Largo, who was her quarter-mafter, and Robert Bartyne, who was mafter-skipper. As this writer feems to have been fo well informed, it may not be improper to give his defcription of this famous ship, in his own words, changing only a few of them that would be unintelligible to an English reader.

⁷¹ Archæologia, vol. vi. p. 201.

⁷³ Arch. vol. v. p. 209.

⁷² Hall, f. 22.

"In this same year (1512.) the King of Scot-"land bigged a great ship, called the Great "Michael, which was the greatest ship and of "the most strength that ever failed in England or " France: for this ship was of so great stature, and " took fo much timber, that, except Falkland, she " wasted all the woods in Fife, which was oak "wood, befides all timber that was gotten out of "Norroway; for the was fo ftrong and of fo great " length and breadth, to wit, fhe wastwelve-score " feet of length, and thirty-fix feet within the fides. All the wrights of Scotland, yea and " many other strangers, were at her device, by " the King's commandment, who wrought very " bufily in her; but it was year and day ere she " was complete. This great ship cumbered Scot-" land to get her to the fea. From that time that " fhe was a float, and her masts and fails com-" plete, with robes and ancores effiering thereto, " fhe was counted to the King to be thirty thou-" fand pounds of expences, besides her artillery, " which was very great and coftly to the King, " and besides all the rest of her furniture 74. She " had three hundred mariners to fail her; she had "fix-fcore gunners to use her artillery, and had " a thousand men of war, besides her captains, " skippers, and quarter-masters. If any man be-" lieve that this description of the ship is not of or verity as we have written, let him pass to the " gate of Tillibarden, and there before the same " yewill fee the length and breadth of her planted

^{74 30,000}l. Scots at that time contained as much filver as 15,000l. Rerling at prefent, and was equal in efficacy to 50,000l. es with ZA

"with hawthorn by the wright that helped to make her 15." Such is the description of this ship given by Pitscottie, and he certainly believed it to be true. It is probable, however, that he was misinformed in some things, particularly that she had a thousand fighting men on board, which is hardly credible.

King James fent this great ship, with two other gallant ships, the Margaret and the James, and a fleet of fmaller veffels, having an army on board, to the affiftance of the King of France, against a threatened invasion of that kingdom by the Englifh, which foon after took place 76. The Great Michael never returned to Scotland, but was fold by the Duke of Albany to the King of France, A.D. 1514., for 40,000 franks 77; a very great fum in those times. James IV., who had a taste for maritime affairs, appears to have formed the defign of raifing a royal navy; but, by his untimely death, that defign was blafted. Henry VIII., who may be juftly ftyled the founder of the English navy, had formed the fame defign about the fame time; but as he furvived King James upwards of thirty years, and was at the head of a much greater, more powerful, and opulent nation, he made much greater progress in the execution of that design; and at his death he left a fleet greatly superior to that of any of his predecessors, and not inferior to that of any other prince in Europe. Some of Henry's predeceffors had a few ships, which they employed fometimes in trade, and fometimes in

Epist. R. R. Scot. tom. i. p. 214.

76 Ibid. p.110.

⁷⁵ Pitscottie, p. 107.

war; but they did not deserve the name of a navv. At the death of Henry VIII. the navy of England was on a very different footing; it confifted of fifty-three ships belonging to the crown, and only equipped for war. Some of these ships were of great magnitude: the Henry Grace de Dieu was of 1000 tons; she carried 19 brass and 103 iron guns; and her complement of men confifted of 349 foldiers, 301 mariners, and fifty gunners. There was another ship of 700 tons, two of 600, and two of 500, and the tonnage of the whole fleet was 6255 tons 78. More evidence, if it was neceffary, might be produced to prove, that the ships employed in England, and even in Scotland; both in trade and war, in this period, were in general larger, stronger, and better built than in any former time; which is a strong presumptive proof that the commerce, power, and opulence of the country had increased:

The trade of England was still carried on, for the most part, by two great companies; the company of the German merchants of steelyard, and the company of the merchant-adventurers of England. The first of these companies was the richest, the most ancient, and for several ages the most favoured by the kings of England, to whom they made valuable presents. This company was composed almost wholly of foreigners, and was far from being popular. They became at length so unpopular, that their persons were often insulted and their goods plundered by the populace of

⁷⁸ Archæologia, vol. vi. p. 220.

The company of merchant-adventurers confifted wholly of Englishmen, and every English merchant was admitted a member of it on paying a fmall fine. It appears fo to have been the intention of government to divide the trade of England between these two companies: and certain branches of it were allotted to each of them in their charters, with strict prohibitions not to exceed their bounds. But the love of gain is not to be restrained by prohibitions lurking in charters. These two companies encroached on each other's privileges, and brought bitter complaints against one another before the King and council. The complaints of the merchant-adventurers were well-founded; the injuries they had received from the other company were very great, and ought to have been redreffed; but their antagonists had powerful protectors at court, which enabled them to repelall attacks during the whole reign of Henry VIII. In the fucceeding reign, the complaints of the merchant-adventurers prevailed, and the privileges enjoyed by the merchants of the steelyard were, after mature deliberation, revoked, and their corporation abolished, by the privy council. It appeared that they had exported in one year 44,000 pieces of cloth; and as they enjoyed an exemption from alien duties, they had defrauded the revenue, and injured the private adventurers, by colouring, or paffing under their own names, the merchandize of other foreigners to a large amount. 79

HISTORY

OF

GREAT BRITAIN.

BOOK VI.

CHAPTER VII.

History of the Manners, Virtues, Vices, remarkable Customs, Languages, Dress, and Diversions of the People of Great Britain, from the accession of Henry VII., A.D. 1485., to the accession of Edward VI., A.D. 1547.

A MONG nations whose government is monarchical, the supreme magistrate is exalted to a power, and invoked by titles, scarcely compatible with human nature; while the people, from whom his authority originates, and on whose breath his existence depends, are in history regarded only as subservient to him. Their annals are adjusted and marked by his reign,

filled with his public transactions or secret policy; and as every atchievement is ascribed to his auspices, it is his life rather than their history that is recorded for the benefit of succeeding generations. From the public transactions, or the dark and dishonest intrigues of princes, the transition to the private character of the people is grateful; yet there our attention is still irressifibly attracted to the sovereign, whose example either extends to society, or whose court is an index to the manners, customs, and taste of the age.

Spirit of the English.

It is observable that the spirit of a nation is fubject to frequent, and fudden viciffitudes; that it passes from the extremes of religious frenzy, or civil discord, to a state of inactive and cold indifference. The English, after a long interruption, obtained, by the union of the rival roses, the bleffings of a permanent government and domeftic concord, and were unwilling to forfeit these by the rash renewal of their former troubles. The power of the nobles was broken, and their numbers diminished; the policy of the crown had suppressed their retainers; war, or the progress of society, had either destroyed or enfranchifed their bondsmen; nor were armies ready to flart, as formerly, at the found of their Their depression, and the disusage of trumpets. flavery, produced a falutary alteration on the ranks of fociety, removing the materials as well as the causes of future commotions; but on the removal of these, an important change is perceptible in the spirit both of the government and

people. The regal power, counteracted hitherto by that of the nobles, subsisted, after the decline of their influence, without opposition and without restraint. Government was fanguinary, the people were passive, submissive to rapacious vindictive tyrants; at whose pleasure the laws were either superseded or perverted. The scaffold streamed with the blood of the nobles, and the flames of perfecution confumed the religious; but the people fuffered with patience, refigned the conflitution to their monarch, and received as their religion whatever his caprice or his paffions might dictate. Other nations, amidft the remains of chivalry, (the force of which was not yet exhaufted,) discovered in their government much. of their prefent moderation and lenity; and the contemporary reigns of Charles and of Francis exhibit despotic authority mitigated by refinement, mild in its exercife, and unstained by fanguinary exertions of power. In England, a tyrannical government argues a more barbarous flate of fociety. The people were inured to bloodshed by the civil wars; and while their own fecurity remained unaffected, beheld the fate of their fuperiors with fupine indifference, or perhaps with a fecret malignant pleasure. Government, it is true, was always vigilant to suppress their murmurs; and Henry VIII. condescended repeatedly to court their affections; religious contests ferved to balance their hopes and their fears; and the religious parties into which they were divided, applauded alternately every tyrannical action of Henry's reign. Perhaps they efteemed

esteemed his character; but theirs is marked by a tame servility, unexampled hitherto in the annals of England.

Manners.

Their manners, though comparatively rude. attained in the prefent period to a confiderable refinement; of which, however, it is difficult to ascertain the precise degree, impossible to distinguish the minute gradations. Foreigners who vifited the country, have transmitted a favourable report of the inhabitants; and Polydore Virgil, with a visible partiality, pronounces that theirs refembled the Italian manners ; but Erasmus informs us, that their manners participated of those nations from whom they originated, exhibiting a mixture neither fo refined as the French, nor fo rude as the German 2. The refort of foreigners was confiderable, and apparently acceptable to all ranks, the plebeians excepted3, who, like their own mastisfs, are still noted for their antipathy to strangers. The nobility and gentlemen of opulence began to travel for improvement through Europe, to study the languages, and acquire the refinement of different courts 4; and this intercourse with foreigners at home and abroad contributed, without supplanting, to correct the rudeness of the national manners.

Hift. p. 15

² Erasmi Colloq. Diversoria ad finem. Erasmus promised a description of English inns, which it is to be regretted he did not execute.

³ Pol. Virgil, p. 15. Stowe, p. 505. Hall, Hen. VIII. p. 62.

⁴ Surry, Wyat, and others, had travelled: and it is faid that the first of the Bedford family distinguished at court was a Mr. Russel, who had acquired by travelling, the languages of the continent, and was employed by Sir John Trenchard his kinsman, to attend on Philip of Austria as an interpreter during his journey to court.

If the character, however, of a court be affumed from the fovereign, these manners, in the court of Henry VII., must have been rude indeed. On arriving at a village where Catharine of Arragon, after landing in England, was lodged for the night, Henry was told that the Princess had already retired to reft; but he announced his intention of vifiting her bed-fide, obliged her to rife and drefs to receive him, and affianced her that evening to his fon Prince Arthur's. Henry VIII. affected more gallantry, and his court was diftinguished by superior politeness; but that romantic gallantry, which was congenial to Francis and to James IV., was adopted through emulation, and fat with vifible conftraint upon Charles, who difregarded, and upon Henry who forgot his youthful professions of respect for the fair. His passions were impetuous, his gallantry was indelicate, yet his character, brave, frank, and generous, like his grandfather Edward, though, like his father Henry, rapacious and jealous, attracted to nobility, and encouraged a magnifience unknown till then in the English court. The nobility, who had formerly shunned the court. unless at seasons when their appearance was neceffary 6, began to frequent it in Henry's reign; they exchanged their folitary dignity for focial intercourse, exhausted their revenues in ostentatious magnificence, and while their existence literally depended on the fmiles or frowns of a

⁵ Leland's Collectanea, vol. v. p. 354.

During parliament, or once a year, to perform their homage.

capricious master, acquired the frivolous, the pleasing refinement of courtly manners.

But the polish of courts is imparted only to a portion of fociety, and the refinement of the people may be estimated perhaps by their means of improvement, their early education, and domeffic manners. Their education in the present period was extremely defective. Schools were rare; and before the reformation, young men were educated in monasteries, women in nunneries; where the latter were instructed in writing, drawing, confectionary, needle-work, and, what were regared then as female accomplishments, in phyfic and furgery 7. The acquifition of the former were confined to writing, and a tincture probably of barbarous Latin s; but ignorance was still fo common, that Fitzherbert recommends to gentlemen unable to commit notes to writing, the practice of notching a stick to assist their memory . When removed from these seminaries to the houses of their parents, both sexes were treated in a manner that precluded improvement. Perhaps the best criterion of civilized fociety is the free intercourfe, and reciprocal confidence between parents and their offspring: a fituation in which an indulgent equality fupercedes authority, and conciliates mutual efteem and affection. But domestic manners were

⁷ Vid. a tract written in the last century, and published from a MS. of Mr. Astle's in the Antiq. Repertory, vol. iii. p. 43.

A fpecimen, not indeed very intelligible, of the Latin acquired at Eton, may be found in Fenn's Orig. Letters. vol. i. p. 390.

⁹ Husbandry, p.86.

fevere and formal; a haughty referve was affected by the old, and an abject deference exacted from the young. Sons, when arrived at manhood, are reprefented as standing uncovered and filent. in their father's prefence; and daughters, though women, were placed like statues at the cupboard; nor permitted to fit, or repose themselves otherwife than by kneeling on a cushion, till their mother departed. Such austere manners were prevalent even in France 10, and peculiar rather to the age than to the nation; but the English. I am afraid, discover a latent, unfeeling ferocity in the relentless rigour of their domestic tribunals. Omissions were punished by stripes and blows; and chastisement was carried to such excefs, that the daughters trembled at the fight of their mother, and the fons avoided and hated their father ". These circumstances indicate that the manners of the people were ceremonious and flately, their refinement artificial, adopted only in their extenal intercourse, not habitual, nor retained to purify domestic life.

Chivalry, though its influence diminished daily, Chivalry. still subsisted as a splendid spectacle, supported by the mutual emulation of princes, their enthusiastic gallantry, or their predilection for arms and exploits of valour. Francis and James IV. imbibed the genuine spirit of chivalry; and in

[&]quot;At Rosny are still shown two stone benches, where the illustrious Sully enjoyed domestic comfort, himself seated, and the rest of his family standing uncovered near a bench facing him." Vid. Mirabeau's Considerations on the Order of Cincinnatus; note AA.

[&]quot; Vid. Tract. ut fupra - Fenn's Letters, passim.

an age when craft began to predominate in politics, their conduct was often prepofteroufly adjusted by the precipitate dictates of romantic honour. The introduction of refinement and tafte in Scotland is ascribed to the espousals of James and Margaret; but although the people were fierce and untractable, the court was polished, and the King, whose deportment during the celebration of his nuptials was remarked and recorded, difplayed the courtefy of an accomplished knight, and a delicacy far superior to the English monarchs 12. Henry VIII. delighted in chivalry; its spirit neither perverted his judgment, nor improved his heart; but his tournaments gratified his tafte for magnificence and his passion for arms. On these amusements, in which he engaged as a conftant combatant, his father's treasures were profusely expended. His weapons fometimes were unufual, at least at tourneys, the battle-axe, and two-handed fword 13; but these, I suppose, were rebated, or blunted, as the spears were with which the combatants were furnished. Yet on one occasion his life was endangered by his favourite Brandon, who shivered a spear on his helmet, without perceiving that his vizor was open, and his face exposed to a mortal blow 14. At his interview with Francis in the field of the cloth of gold, his strength and dexterity were both conspicuous in a tournament perhaps the most splendid of the age. The two

14 Hall, 122. kings,

¹² Vid. An account of Margaret's Journey to Scotland, and reception there, in Leland's Collect. vol. iv. p. 265. Herbert's Hift. p. 13.

kings, who, with fourteen companions, had undertaken to encounter all who challenged, entered the lifts with their affiftants, fumptuoufly arrayed in the richest tissues; and in the presence of their queens awaited the appearance of those knights whom the fame of their tournament was supposed to have attracted. Their opponents were ready, twelve gentlemen richly habited. Francis began; and after performing fucceffive courses, and breaking several spears with applaufe, was fucceeded by Henry, who shivered his spear at the first encounter; at the second, demolished his antagonist's helmet. Their justings were continued for five days with equal fplendour and fimilar fuccess; and the minute descriptions of the attire of the knights, and the trappings of the horses, of their quaint devices and feats in arms, affure us that thefe spectacles were highly estimated 25. The mock encounters of princes appear at present unimportant and trivial, as those of the mimic monarchs of the flage; yet if a fervile or brutal exhibition delighted, by its maffacre, the refined and rational nations of antiquity, how superior, as a spectacle, is the image of war, where kings and heroes are the only combatants!

These, inspected at a distance, were magnifi- Simplicity cent times, yet diverlified withal, when examined of the closely, with fimplicity of manners, and plainness or penury in the chief comforts of modern life. Margaret, on her marriage with James IV., made her public entry into Edinburgh, riding on a pil-

lion behind the King 16. The apartments of Hampton-court had been furnished, on a particular occasion, each with a large candlestick, a bason, goblet, and ewer, of filver; yet the furniture of Henry's chamber, independent of the bed and cupboard, confifted only of a joint-flool, a pair of andirons, and a fmall mirror 17. The halls and chambers of the wealthy were furrounded with hangings, fometimes of arras, and replenished with a cupboard, long tables, or rather loofe boards placed upon treftles, forms, a chair, and a few joint-stools 18. Their beds were apparently comfortable, often elegant; but those of inferior condition flept on a mat, or a flraw pallet, under a rug, with a log for a pillow. Glass windows were confined to churches and manfions, and carpets were only employed to garnish the cupboard 19. The floors, composed of clay, and covered either with fand or rushes, were foul and loathfome, collecting and retaining for twenty years the offals of the table, and the putrid excretions of dogs and men; and Erasmus, from whom this description is taken, attributes justly to the uncleanliness of the English, the frequent and destructive visitations of the plague. 20

Virtues.

The morals are less flexible than the manners of a people; and those virtues that in former ages diftinguished the British, subsisted in the present with little alteration. The English were generous

¹⁶ Leland's Coll. vol. iv. p. 284.

¹⁷ Supra, ch. v. fect. 1. Strutt, vol. iii. p. 69. ¹⁸ Id. 65. ¹⁹ Hollingshed, p. 188. Tract. ut supra. Vid. Strutt.

²⁰ Epist. 432.

and brave as formerly, fond of war and intrepid in danger. Their hospitality continued, not indeed in its former profusion, but corrected rather than abated by the changes produced on the modes of life. Their active virtues have already been enumerated in our former volumes, in a manner that renders repetition unnecessary. Their predominant vices afford a more copious and ungrateful subject; for the reformation detected the profligate lives of the monks and clergy, and the eloquence of the pulpit, acquiring from the reformers a new direction and additional vigour, touched with freedom or asperity the vices of the people.

Ignorance, a venial imperfection in the laity, vices of becomes criminal in those who profess to teach or the clergy. to discover the way to falvation; but perhaps the ignorance formerly conspicuous both in the monastics and the fecular clergy, diminished after the dawn of reformation and letters. Their pravity did not diminish however, but refisted, at least in England, the censures of their enemies, and the fense of their own impendent danger. The vifitations that preceded the suppression of the monasteries, discovered, if credit be due to the infpectors, crimes the most degrading to human nature. Hypocritical fanctity and holy frauds are congenial to every monastic institution; and the counterfeit relics imposed on the vulgar, or the artifices practifed to support their credit, are to be regarded as the established trade and profession of religious orders. Intemperance is also to be expected wherever ascetics have obtained a relaxation from rigid discipline;

nor is their guilt inexpiable, if, after indulging in evening collations, they affembled irregularly, and drunk to matins. But the reports are replete with other crimes of a deeper complexion; the lewdness of the monks, the incontinence of the nuns, the abortions forcibly procured by the latter, and the monftrous lufts which the former indulged 21. The particulars would ftain and dishonour our page; yet an historian, anxious for the dignity of human neture, might wish to believe, that the reports of the vifitors were inflamed by zeal, and perverted by an interested and malignant policy. It is difficult to conceive that they would venture, unsupported by evidence, to accuse a community of crimes repugnant to human nature; and their veracity feems to be vindicated by their extreme folicitude to preferve fome convents whose conduct was exemplary. But these crimes were apparently notorious; nor is their existence doubtful, or the licentious lives of the regulars disputable, when their debaucheries had already attracted the papal indignation, and their crimes incurred the cenfures and menaces of Morton the primate. If, at the commencement of this period, the monks of St. Alban's had begun, in different convents, to displace the nuns, and fubilitute profitutes, it is not probable that their morals were afterwards improved or their discipline re-established. 22

Their hofpitality. The monks, however, had a merit in their liberal hospitality and charity. Their tables were open

Antiq. Repertory, vol. ii. 166.

Burnet's Hift. Ref. vol. i. p. 241.

Supra, ch. ii.

to firangers, and as the cheer was excellent, much frequented by the neighbouring gentlemen. At St. Alban's, and probably at other abbeys, every traveller found an hospitable reception for three days; and was then permitted, if his conduct was fatisfactory, or his bufiness important, to protract his ftay 23. The fragments of their luxury furnished an extensive charity; and their indulgence to their tenants, whose rents were always moderate, endeared them to the peafants. In Scotland, where the regulars were not, I believe, fo diffolute, fimilar hospitality was fupported in monasteries; and in the abbey of Aberbrothick, about nine thousand bushels of malt feem to have been annually expended in ale 74. But these communities were prejudicial. even by their charities, to the increase of industry; and their dissolution assures us that the most venerable institutions, however fanctioned by time or supported by prejudice, may be suppressed, when useless, without detriment or danger to fociety. It is probable that forty thoufand were discharged from different religious houses; and it is certain that a number, superior to that of the clergy at prefent, was absorbed with facility into the mass of the people.

From the morals of the clergy, the transition to Vices of those of the laity is natural; and Henry, after the people. diflodging vice from the cloifters, proceeded, in the fame strain of reformation, to cleanse the stews. These were a range of buildings in South-

²⁴ Antiq. Rep. vol. iii. p. 61.

wark, on the banks of the Thames, privileged by patent as brothels, regulated by statute, and tolerated as a necessary drain for corruption, from the reign of Henry II. to the last year of Henry VIII. The wretched profitutes were then expelled, the stews were put down by found of trumpet 25, and their suppression was perhaps attended with more folemnity than that of the convents. Their suppression failed however to extirpate lewdness; and Latimer, whose fermons are replete with a barbarous eloquence, inveighs bitterly at its subsequent prevalence: "You have " put down the flews," fays this rude declaimer, 66 but what is the matter amended? What availeth "that? Ye have but changed the place, and " not taken the whoredom away. I advertise "you, in God's name, to look to it. I hear fay "there is now more whoredom in London than " ever there was in the Bank. There is more open whoredom, more flewed whoredom 26." The vices obnoxious to clerical censures are not always pernicious to fociety, nor is their magnitude certain, when transmitted through the medium of intemperate zeal. But Latimer's propofal, in a court fermon, for reftraining adultery by a capital punishment, attests its prevalence 27; nor is any inferior infliction too fevere for a crime that embitters life, and corrodes the dearest connexions of nature; a crime, in its ultimate confequences, subversive either of focial

p.337. CLatimer's Sermons, p.43. The Londonopolis, p.337. Latimer's Sermons, p.43. The Londonopolis, p. 10. 103.

intercourfe, or productive of an utter relaxation of morals.

The vices and the follies peculiar to the age are necessarily the chief topics of pulpit eloquence; and, if credit were due to this fevere reformer, the statesmen and judges were corrupted by bribery, the people profligate, destitute of charity, immerfed in vice, and devoted to perdition 28. Wherever government is arbitrary, the adminif tration of justice is perverted and partial; and judges subservient to regal influence are certainly not inaccessible to secret corruption. The unmeaning oaths to which the English have in every age been addicted are peculiarly offensive to pious ears, and in some minds generate a persuafion, that a people habituated to profane fwearing are difaffected to the Deity whose name they dishonour, impervious to religion, and insensible of virtue. It may be observed, however, with more propriety, that habitual fwearing diminishes our fense of the obligation attached to judicial oaths. Perjury was still the predominant vice that tainted the morals of every rank, and infected even the breaft of the fovereign. Juries were perjured; their verdicts were generally procured. by bribery; their corruption was notorious, and encouraged openly by Henry VII. in the iniquitous profecution of his own subjects 29. Princes claim and obtain an exemption from vulgar

²⁸ Latimer's Sermons, p. 18. 46. 55. 63. 66. 84.

²⁹ Stowe, 485. 11 Hen. VII. c.21. 23 Hen. VIII. c.3. Barrington's Observ. on the Stat. p.410.

honefly; and that which is fraud and perfidy in private life, is dignified, in their transactions, by the appellation of policy; yet the reader must observe, with some surprise, the repeated examples contained in this history, of princes corroborating, by mutual oaths and the rites of religion, those treaties which they had previously determined to frustrate or violate. Their treaties are at present neither more permanent nor more secure; but the intervention of oaths is wisely omitted as a superfluous adjection, not obligatory on the lax morals peculiar to princes.

Robbery.

To these crimes may be added thest and robbery, which were still so prevalent, that twentytwo thousand criminals are said to have been executed by the rigid justice of Henry VIII. Robbery was feldom attended with murder, and was probably still regarded as an occupation, of which the guilt might be extenuated by courage and fuccess 30. Murders and affassinations are frequent, however, in Scottish history, for the people were cruel, fierce, and ungovernable; and, to judge from the desperate crimes of the nobility, their manners were neither more foftened, nor their passions better controlled and regulated. But whatever be the crimes of a people, there is in human nature a reforming principle that ultimately corrects and amends its degeneracy; and history furnishes repeated examples of nations passing from even a vicious effeminacy to an enthusiasm that regenerates every virtue. Such a change was effected, in a partial

Religion.

³º Hollingshed, p. 186, 199. 246.

degree, by the reformation; which, recalling its profelytes from the errors and abuses of the Romish superstition, taught them to renounce the diffipation and vices of the age, to assume the badge of superior fanctity and more rigid virtue, to fuffer in adversity with patience, and to encounter perfecution and death with fortitude. Sectaries, from the conftant circumspection requisite in their conduct, contract an habitual and gloomy feverity; and foreigners, ever more observant than natives, discovered, in the present period, symptoms of that puritanical spirit which, at the diftance of a century, was destined to give liberty to England and law to kings. 31

The reformation might reflect difcredit on re- Credulity. cent miracles; but the period is still distinguished by excessive credulity. The astrologers in 1523., from the approach of eclipfes and planetary conjunctions, predicted inceffant rains and destructive inundations: the people were alarmed; many retired to the high grounds for fafety; the abbot of Bartholomew in Smithfield built a house, which he stored with provisions, on Harrow-ofthe-Hill; and those who reposed in the promise to Noah, were still apprehensive of a partial inundation, and collected meal fufficient for fubfiftence till the waters subsided. But the year elapfed with little rain, and the aftrologers redeemed their credit, by confessing a mistake in their calculations of an hundred years 32. The reformers probably were less credulous; but,

²¹ Erasmi Epist. 127. Scaliger. 21. 32 Hall, Hen. VIII. 125. believing

believing that the Pope was antichrift, they expected, as his power was partly broken, the speedy arrival of Christ in judgment; and, in every unufual appearance of the heavens, perceived, with a mixture of hope and trepidation, those figns supposed to announce the cessation of time, and destruction of the world 33. An Egyptian experiment repeated by James IV. exhibits the fuperstitious credulity of the Scots. Whether to discover the primitive language of the human race, or to ascertain the first formation of speech, he inclosed two children with a dumb attendant in Inchkeith, an uninhabited island of the Forth; and it was believed that the children, on arriving at maturity, communicated their ideas in pure Hebrew, the language of Paradife. 34

I would mention as an instance of credulity, the belief of a monstrous production of the human species, but the concurrence of grave historians attests and renders the fact indisputable. This monster was born in Scotland, and its appearance suggested the idea of twins fortuitously conjoined in the womb, united at the navel into a common trunk, and terminating below in the limbs of a male, but disparted above into two bodies, distinct and proportioned in all their parts, each endued with separate members, and animated each by a separate intelligence. Their sensations were common when excited in the loins or inferior extremities; peculiar to one, and unfelt by the other, when produced on the par-

³³ Latimer, 247.

³⁴ Pitscottie, 104.

ticular body of either. Their perceptions were different, their mental affections unconnected. their wills independent, at times discordant, and again adjusted by mutual concession. They received, by the direction of James IV., fuch liberal education as the times afforded; attained in music to confiderable proficiency, and acquired a competent knowledge of various languages. Their death was miferable: at the age of twenty-eight the one expired; and his body corrupting, tainted and putrified his living brother. 35

The feudal fystem was productive, among other Customs. prepofterous cuftoms, of early marriages, formed without disparagement of rank or birth, but without regard to disparity of age or repugnance of sentiment. Vaffals, during their wardship, were at the absolute disposal of their lord, who literally sold them, while minors, in marriage; and prudent fathers, to frustrate his rapacity, were careful to accelerate, before their death, the nuptials of their offspring. The cuftom extended beyond the neceffity from which it originated, and the death of Prince Arthur is to be ascribed to the premature confummation, at the age of fifteen, of his marriage with Katherine. When, on her divorce from Henry, a proof of that delicate circumstance was requifite, the opinion of two witnesses, the Duke of Norfolk and the Earl of Shrewfbury, was found-

³⁵ Buchanan, 242. Pitscottie, 103. Hawthornden, 69. Mortua, quin etiam jungebat corpora vivis, Componens manibusque manus, atque oribus ora Tormenti genus! et fanie taboque fluentes Complexu in misero, longa sic morte necabat. VIRGIL.

ed on their own marriage at the age of Prince Arthur; and it is remarkable that Herbert, the historian of these transactions, was himself married at the same age to a woman of twenty³⁶. Chivalry was the season of romantic love; yet, as mankind are actuated chiefly by interest, marriage, with sew exceptions, has in every age been a sordid bargain.

The mode which is still peculiar to Britain, of faluting ladies, appears to have excited the furprife of foreigners; and Erasmus, who approved of it as a laudable custom, avers with pleasantry, that whether you vifit, depart, or return, whether you affemble by concert, or encounter by accident, you cannot ftir in England without an interchange of luscious kisses 37. An interchange not fo difinterested was supported at court, where, on the new year, the king accepted, from his nobles and clergy, of gifts from five to fifty pounds, and repaid them either with fmiles or occasional presents of gilt plate 38. On solemn festivals, the king and his nobles bestowed each his largess on the guards or attendants, and an herald proclaimed the different donations with much folemnity; but James IV. delicately suppressed, at his marriage, the mention of his own, when his queen's was published 39. Marriages, christenings, and established festivals, furnished frequent occa-

³⁶ Herbert's Hift. p. 270. Herbert's Life, p. 26.

³⁷ Epift. 65. In the description of Margaret's journey to Scotland, which was written by an herald, every kiss that she received is recorded with care. Lel. Col. vol. iv.

³ Strype, vol. i. p. 138. Walpole's Anec. vol. i.

³⁹ Ibid.

fions for convivial intercourse; but the gentlemen are described as assembling at other times in fields or forests, with hawks and hounds, and bugles suspended in silken baldricks 40. There, under the pretext of hunting, they had often concerted rebellions, or convoked their military retainers to arms; and an early statute of Henry VII.'s still prohibits their hunting in vizors, or during the darkness and concealment of night.41

The domestic manners of the Scots have fel- scots. dom attracted historical notice; and their advances in refinement are to be collected or conjectured from their peculiar customs, their progress in the arts, and their improvements in the various comforts of life. Their morals, contrafted with those of their ancestors, are arraigned as degenerate by their historian Boethius, who accuses their intemperance, censures their luxury, and laments their departure from the frugal moderation and rugged virtues of the ancient Scots 42. His description, however, of these primitive, obdurate virtues is far from attractive; and what he denominates vicious intemperance and exceffive luxury, may be fairly interpreted an increafing refinement, and fuperior elegance in focial life. The nobles, who reforted feldom to cities. preserved in their castles their former rude but hospitable magnificence, which increased their retainers, and ftrengthened their power, fecured their fafety, or enabled them to profecute their

4º Tract. ut supra, in the Antiq. Repert. 4º 1 Hen. VII. ch. 7.

⁴² Boethius Descript. Scot. p. 12.

deadly feuds. The people were divided into factions by those lords to whom they attached themfelves, whose interest they espoused, and whose quarrels they adopted 43; and the clans peculiar at present to the Highlands, were probably once univerfal in Scotland. In the Highlands, and on the borders, clans were perpetuated by a conftant warfare, that inured the people to the fierceness and rapine of a predatory life. As thieves and plunderers, their character was proverbial; yet the depredations committed generally on hoftile tribes, assume an appearance of military virtue; and their mutual fidelity, their observance of promifes, and, in the Highlands, their inviolable attachment to their chieftains, are circumstances fufficient almost to redeem their character 44. The Chattan clan, during the minority of James V., had made a destructive incursion into Murray, but after their return were affailed and oppressed by fuperior forces; and two hundred of the tribe, rather than betray their chieftain or disclose his retreat, preferred and fuffered an ignominious death 45.

Languages.

The mutability of language, to the learned, whose fame depends on its duration, an incessant topic of serious regret, seems to be counteracted by the art of printing, which, in proportion as it disseminates a taste for letters, re-acts as a model on colloquial speech, and operates, if not entirely to repress innovation, at least to preserve the stability, and perpetuate the radical structures of

⁴³ Major's Hift. p. 32.

⁴¹ Lefly's Hift. pp. 56. 61.

⁴⁵ Id. 425.

language. Such stability the English language has acquired from printing, and at the diftance of three centuries, still exhibits the same phrafeology and fyntactical form, varied only by those alterations effential to the progreffive refinement of speech. The language of the period, if necesfary to discriminate its peculiar style, was unpolished and oral; its character is rude simplicity. neither aspiring to elegance, nor solicitous of eafe, but written as it was spoken, without regard to felection or arrangement. Reduced to modern orthography, it is only diftinguishable from the common colloquial discourse of the prefent period, by a certain rust of antiquity, by phrases that are abrogated, or words that are either effaced or altered. These, however, are not numerous; and we may conclude, from the compolitions of the learned, that the language of the people differed little from the prefent, unless in pronunciation, which, to judge from orthography, was harsh, and such as would now be denominated provincial or vulgar. Whatever has been fince superadded, either by a skilful arrangement, or the incorporation of foreign or claffical words and idioms, is more the province of critical disquisition than historical refearch; yetit merits observation, that the first attempts at elegance are ascribable, in poetry to Surry, in profe perhaps to Sir Thomas More, whose English style, as it was modelled on his Latin, is constructed with art, and replete with invertions, approaching to that which, in contradiftinction to the vulgar, may be justly denominated a learned diction.

This hiftory has already furnished sufficient specimens both of the Scottish and English languages, which, descended from the same Gothic original, and nearly fimilar in former periods, divaricated confiderably during the prefent. This is to be attributed to the alteration and improvement of the English, for the Scottish was more stationary: nor is there in the language, a material difference between the compositions of James the First. and those of Bellenden 46, Dunbar, and Douglas; each of whom, by the liberal adaptation of Latin words, enriched and polished his vernacular idiom. But for the union of the crowns, which in literature rendered the English the prevalent language, the Scottish might have risen to the merit of a rival dialect, different rather in pronunciation than structure; not fo folemn, but more energetic, nor less susceptible of literary culture.

Drefs.

Dress, submitted to the guidance of taste or vanity, is first displayed in magnificence; then, when the improvement of manufactures has rendered magnificence cheap and common, in the incessant change and variety of fashion. The dress of the period was costly, and in its fashions subject to frequent sluctuation; so costly, that the wardrobes of the nobility in fifty years had increased to twenty times their former value 47; so changeable, that the capricious inconstancy of the national dress was quaintly represented by the figure of an Englishman naked, in a

47 Fitzherbert's Hufbandry, p. 96.

⁴⁶ Bellenden, Archdeacon of Murray, translated Livy and Hector Boethius into Scotch; the latter was published, the former is in MSS, in the Advocates' Library in Edinburgh.

mufing posture, with sheers in his hand, and cloth on his arm, perplexed amidst a multiplicity of fashions, and uncertain how to devise his garments 48. These fashions it is impossible now to discover, but the general dress of the period may be described from prints and pictures with sufficient precision.

The drefs of the nobility, during the reigns of Its fashi-Richard and Henry the Seventh, was grotefque and fantaftical, fuch as renders it difficult at first to distinguish the fex. Over the breeches was worn a petticoat; the doublet was laced, like the flays of a pregnant woman, across a stomacher. and a gown or mantle with wide fleeves defcended over the doublet and petticoat down to the ancles. Commoners were fatisfied, inflead of a gown, with a frock or tunick shaped like a shirt, gathered at the middle, and fastened round the loins by a girdle, from which a short dagger was generally suspended. But the petticoat was rejected after the accession of Henry the Eighth, when the trauses or tight breeches, that displayed the minute fymmetry of the limbs, was revived, and the length of the doublet and mantle diminished. The fashions which the great have difcarded, are often retained by the lower orders, and the form of the tunick, a Saxon garment, may be ffill discovered in the waggoner's frock; of the traufe, and perhaps of the petticoat, in the different trowfers that are worn by feamen. Thefe habits were again diversified by minute decorations and changes of fashion: from an opinion.

48 Camden's Remains, p. 17.

that corpulence contributed to dignity, the doublet was puckered, fluffed, and diftended around the body; the fleeves were fwelled into large ruffs; and the breeches bolftered about the hips; but how shall I describe an artificial protuberance, gross and indecent, in the age of Henry the Eighth, if we judge from his, and the portraits of others, a familiar appurtenance to the dress of the fovereign, the knight, and mechanic, at a future period retained in comedy as a favourite theme of licentious merriment 49? The doublet and breeches were fometimes flashed, and, with the addition of a short cloak, to which a stiffened cap was peculiar, refembled the national drefs of the Spaniards. The doublet is now transformed into a waiftcoat, and the cloak or mantle, to which the fleeves of the doublet were transferred, has been converted gradually into a modern coat; but the dress of the age was justly censured as inconvenient and clumfy. " Men's fervants," to whom the fashions had descended with the cloaths of their mafter, " have fuche pleytes," fays Fitzherbert, "upon theyr breftes, and ruffes " uppon theyr fleves, above theyr elbowes, that " yf theyr mayster, or theym selfe, hadde never " fo greatte neede, they coulde not shoote one of fhote to hurte theyr ennemyes, tyll they had caste of theyr cotes, or cut of theyr sleves so.

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⁴⁹ The codpiece, on which Shakespeare is often so witty, made its first appearance, I believe, at the French court. It appears in a portrait of Henry by Holbein, and became so prevalent, that we discover it even in the picture of a common beadle. Vide Strutt's Antiq. vol. iii.

⁵⁰ Fitzherbert's Husbandry, p. 96.

The drefs of the peafantry was fimilar, but more convenient, confifting generally of trunk hofe, and a doublet of coarse and durable fustian. 51

The materials employed in drefs were rich and Magnifiexpensive; cloth of gold, furs, filks, and velvets, cence. profufely embroidered. The habits of Henry VIII. and his Queen, on their procession to the Tower previous to their coronation, are described by Hall, an historian delighting in shews and spectacles. " His Grace wared in his upperst apparrell. a robe of crimfyn velvet, furred with armyns; "his jacket or cote of raifed gold; the placard "embrodered with diamonds, rubies, emeraudes, greate pearles, and other riche stones; a greate " bauderike aboute his necke, of large balaffes. "The Quene was appareled in white fatyn em-" brodered, her haire hangyng downe to her " backe, of a very great length, bewtefull and "goodly to behold, and on her hedde a coro-" nall, fet with many riche orient stones 52." The attire of females was becoming and decent, remale fimilar in its fashion to their present dress, but dress. less subject to change and caprice 53. The large and fantaftic head-dreffes of the former age were fuperfeded by coifs and velvet bonnets, beneath which the matron gathered her locks into tufts or tuffocks; but the virgin's head was uncovered, and her hair braided and fastened with ribbons 54. Among gentlemen, long hair was fashionable

⁵¹ For a more particular account of the dress of this period, vid. Strutt's Antiq. vol. iii. p. 75. plates 1. 12, 13, 14.
52 Hall, p. 3.
53 Polydore Virgil, p. 15.

⁵² Hall, p. 3. Hall, p. 3. Polydore Virgit, p. 15. Moryfon's Itinerary, part iii. p. 179.

through Europe, till the Emperor Charles, during a voyage, devoted his locks for his health or fafetys; and in England, Henry, a tyrant even in tafte, gave efficacy to the fashion by a peremptory order for his attendants and courtiers to poll their heads 56. The same spirit induced him, probably, by fumptuary laws, to regulate the inordinate drefs of his fubjects. Cloth of gold or tiffue was referved for dukes and marquifes; if of a purple colour, for the royal family. Silks and velvets were reftricted to commoners of wealth or diffinction; but embroidery was interdicted from all beneath the degree of an earl. Cuffs for the fleeves, and bands and ruffs for the neck, were the invention of this period; but felthats were of earlier origin, and were ftill coarfer and cheaper than caps or bonnets 57. Pockets, a convenience unknown to the ancients, are perhaps the latest real improvement on dress; but, inftead of pockets, a loofe pouch feems to have been fometimes suspended from the girdle. 58

Scotland.

The Scottish was apparently the same with the English dress, the bonnet excepted, peculiar both in its colour and form. The masks and trains, and supersuous finery of semale apparel, had been formerly prohibited; but fashion is superior to human laws, and we learn from the satirical invectives of poets, that the ladies still

⁵⁵ Whether in consequence of a vow or a head-ach is disputed by historians, Herbert, p.316.
56 Stowe, p.571.

⁵⁷ Strutt, vol. iii. p. 83. 4 Hen. VII. c. 8., by which the price of the best hats is limited to 20d.; of the best caps to 2s. 8d.

⁵⁸ Strutt, plate 1. 14. vol. iii.

perfifted in retaining their finery and muzzling their faces. 59

The diet of the peafantry is subject, in different periods, to few alterations; because it consists of the common produce of the foil, prepared in the fimplest manner for food. Their bread-corn in England was rye or barley, fometimes oats mixed with pulse; a food preferred for its nutrition to wheat, which, till rendered by a better cultivation cheap and abundant, was usually confined to the tables of the wealthy 60. These tables were more luxurious and expensive than formerly; diftinguished by the variety of delicate viands, as well as by the quantity of substantial fare 61; and Polydore expatiates with visible complacency on the various pleasures of those tables at which he had feafted; on the juicy flavour of the mutton, and the fweetness of the beef, especially when flightly falted; on the tenderness of the young geefe and the Kentish hens; the delicacy of the partridges, pheafants, and quails; and the fatnefs of the larks, thrushes, and blackbirds, of which incredible numbers were caught in winter, and presented almost at every table. But his taste was peculiarly gratified by the varieties and abundance of excellent fish, which, to a churchman, renders the mortification even of the appetite luxurious; he difcriminates the gurnard, whiting, mullet, tur-

⁵⁹ Black Acts, p. 43. The ftatute provides, "That no woman cum to kirk nor mercat with hir face muffalit." Dunbar and Lindfay inveigh at the extravagance of the ladies in drefs.

⁶⁰ Moryson's Itinerary, part iii. p. 449.

⁶¹ Fitzherbert's Hufbandry, 97. According to this writer, the table was four times more expensive than in former times.

bot, breme, and sturgeon; depreciates the mackerel as dry, the shad as insipid; extols the rich and delicious oysters, and approves of the recent translation of the pike from sens and lakes into gentlemen's ponds 62. To these the carp might be added, introduced from the continent in the present period as store for ponds 63; and from these particulars, to a foreigner important, we may conclude that sew delicacies were wanting at feasts. Vegetables, however, were sparingly provided; and as regular markets were not general, country samilies killed a number of beeves at Michaelmas, and subsisted till Whitfuntide on salted meat. 64

Manner of living. Their cookery cannot now be appreciated, or distinguished otherwise than by a profusion of hot spices with which every dish was indiscriminately seasoned. Dinner and supper were served in the hall, where the first table was placed in a fort of recess, or elevation, at the upper end, and reserved for the landlord and his principal guests, while visitors less respectable were seated with the officers of the household, at long and narrow tables that occupied the sides and middle of the hall. The rank of the guests was again discriminated by their arrangement, by

⁶² Polydore Virgil, p. 13.

⁶³ Hollingshed, p. 46. Anderson quotes the following distich:

[&]quot;Turkeys, carps, hops, piccarel, and beer,

[&]quot; Came into England all in one year."

Hift. Com. vol. i. p. 354.

Morthumberland Household Book.

⁶⁵ Above toolb. of spices were employed annually in the North-umberland Family. Northumberland Household Book.

their fituation above or below the faltcellar, which was placed invariably in the middle of the table, and the usher was carefully instructed to displace fuch as might feat themselves unmannerly above their betters. The chief fervants attended always above the faltcellar, beneath which the table was probably crowded with poor dependents, whom the guests despised, and the servants neglected. The fervants were marshalled, and the dishes ferved, by orders issued aloud from the usher 66 ; and at table none prefumed to taste of the dishes till they were drawn fuccessively upwards to the principal personage, from whom they descended . again to the rest of the company 67. Churchmen affected peculiar ceremony, and the Abbot of St. Alban's dined with greater flate than the nobility themselves. His table was elevated fifteen steps above the hall, and in ferving his dinner, the monks, at every fifth step, performed a hymn, He dined alone at the middle of his table, to the ends of which guests of distinguished rank were admitted; and the monks, after their attendance on the Abbot was over, fat down to tables at the fides of the hall, and were ferved with equal respect by the novices 68. At Wolfey's entertainment of the French ambaffadors, the company were fummoned by trumpet to fupper, and the courses were announced by a prelude of music. The second course con-

Vid. Notes in the Northumberland Household Book. This mode of living was retained by some great families till the middle of the last century. Ibid. 67 Hollingshed, 166.
48 Antiq. Repert. vol. iii. p. 61.

tained upwards of an hundred devices or fubtilties; caftles, churches, animals, warriors justing on foot and on horseback; others dancing with ladies; " all as well counterfeited," fays the historian, " as the painter should have " painted on a cloth or wall "." Such entertainments were not of a short duration; the dinner-hour was eleven in the forenoon, the supper fix in the evening; but the dinner was often prolonged till supper, and that protracted till late at night 10. Breakfast seems to have been a folitary meal, not universal, but, like the collation after supper, confined to a few in their private apartments 71. But it was not. probably an unfubstantial meal; and the collation, the flightest repast of the age, confisted often of brawn, jellies, fweet-meats, ale, brandy, and spiced wines. 72

In Scotland.

The diet of the Scots was worfe, and more penurious than that of the English. The peafants subfifted chiefly on oatmeal and cabbages, for animal food was sparingly used, even at the table of substantial gentlemen. An English traveller, who experienced the hospitality of a Scottish knight, describes the table as furnished with large platters of porridge, in each of which was a fmall piece of fodden beef, and remarks, that the fervants en-

Stowe, p.535. Cavendish.
 Warton's Hist. Poet. vol. iii. p. 343. n. Antiq. Rep. p. 154. 186. Latimer, 108.

Moryson's Itinerary, part iii. p. 150. Hollingshed, 170.

⁷² Vid. The Articles of a Collation enumerated in Squire Meldrum, a Scottish Poem, by Sir David Lindsay of the Mount.

tered in their blue caps without uncovering, and, instead of attending, seated themselves with their mafter at table. His mess was better however than theirs, a boiled pullet with prunes in the broth; but his guest observed, " no art of cook-" ery, or furniture of household stuff, but rather " rude neglect of both 73." Forks are a recent invention, and in England the table was only fupplied with knives; but in Scotland every gentleman produced from his girdle a knife, and cut the meat into morfels for himfelf and the women; a practice that first intermixed the ladies and gentlemen alternately at table. The use of the fingers in eating required a fcrupulous attention to cleanliness, and ablution was cuftomary, at least at court, both before and after meals 74. But the court and the nobility emulated the French in their manners, and adopted probably their refinements in diet. The Scottish reader will observe, that the knight's dinner was composed of two coarse dishes peculiar to Scotland 25; but others of an exquisite delicacy were probably derived from the French, and retained, with little alteration, by a nation otherwife ignorant of the culinary arts. The Scots, though affimilating fast to the English, still resemble the French in their tables.

⁷³ Moryson's Itinerary, part iii. p. 155. Moryson's journey into Scotland was in 1598: but his landlord seems to have retained the manners of the former age.

⁷⁴ Leland's Collectanea, vol. iv. p. 283.

⁷⁵ The one was, falt meat and oatmeal boiled together; the other, a fowl boiled with leeks and prunes;—both national diffes.

Liquors.

Ale and Gascony wines were the principal liquors; but mead, cyder, and perry, were not uncommon. Hops were still scarce, and seldom employed in ale, which was brewed therefore in finall quantities, to be drank while new. At the king's table ale was prohibited as unfit for ufe till five days old 76. The wines, whatever was their quality, were certainly superior to our prefent harsh and astringent port; yet Erasmus complains repeatedly that good wine was unknown in England. His frail and fickly conftitution required wine of a peculiar age and quality; and it is probable that his poverty deterred him from procuring the best ". wine was ftill circulated in a large cup, from which the company drank alternately 78. The English were sober, the Scotch intemperate; they are accused at least by their own historians of excessive drinking; an imputation long attached to their national character. 79

Diverfions. Martial diversions have been already described, and the sports of the field are, in different ages, pursued with an uniformity almost permanent. In England hunting has ever been a favourite diversion, and hawking has only been superfeded by the fusil; but it was still practifed with unabating ardour, and cultivated scientifically as a liberal art. Treatifes were composed on the diet and discipline proper for the salcon; the genus was discriminated like social life, and a species appropriated to every intermediate rank, from an emperor down to a

Strutt, vol. iii. p. 72. 108.
 Epift. 124. 144.
 Epift. 447.
 Boethius, p. 15.
 Moryfon, 156.
 knave

knave or peafant; nor were gentlemen more diftinguished by the blazoning of heraldry, than by the particular hawks they were entitled to carry 80. The long bow was also employed in fowling, a foort in which much dexterity was requifite; but archery was even a female amusement; and it is recorded that Margaret, on her journey to Scotland, killed a buck with an arrow in Alnwick Park 81. The prefervation of the feathered game was enforced in the prefent age by a flatute, the first that was enacted of those laws which have fince accumulated into a code of oppression. 82

The Scottish monarchs hunted in the Highlands, Hunting. fometimes in a ftyle of eaftern magnificence. For the reception of James V., the Queen his mother, and the Pope's ambaffador, the Earlof Athollconstructed a palace or bower of green timber, interwoven with boughs, moted around, and provided with turrets, portcullice, and drawbridge, and furnished within with whatever was fuitable for a royal abode. The hunting continued for three days, during which, independent of roes, wolves, and foxes, fix hundred deer were captured; an incredible number, unless we suppose that a large diffrict was furrounded, and the game driven into a narrow circle to be flain, without fatigue, by the King and his retinue. On their departure the Earl fet fire to the palace, an honour that excited the ambaffador's furprife; but the King informed him that it was customary with Highlanders to

Strutt, vol. iii. p. 124. 42 25 Hen. VIII. C. 11.

⁸¹ Leland's Collect. vol. iv. p. 278.

burn those habitations they deserted. The Earl's hospitality was estimated at the daily expence of a thousand pounds, at present equivalent at least to three thousand pounds sterling. ⁸³

Mafques and page-

During the prefent period, feveral games were invented or practifed to the difuse of archery, for the promotion of which, bowls, quoits, cales, tennis, cards, and dice, were prohibited by the legiflature as unlawful games 84. Tennis, however, was aroyal pastime, in which Henry VIII. in his youth delighted much: and a match is recorded between him and the Emperor, the Prince of Orange, and the Marquis of Brandenburgh 85. But the favourite amusements of court, next to tournaments. were masques and pageants; the one an Italian diversion subservient to gallantry, the other a vehicle of gross adulation. The masques were destitute of character, humour, and dialogue; they were conducted in dumb show, and their merit confifted in the grotefque difguifes of a part of the company, who entered as strangers to dance with the ladies. The masque and pageant were often united; for the pageant was properly a piece of machinery, an artificial mountain, a fhip, a castle, in which the masquers were introduced into the hall, or from which, in folemn processions, allegorical personages recited pedantic and long panegyrics.

Theatrical amusements. Curiofity is naturally excited concerning the present state, which is properly the origin of the English drama; that state which preceded its

Pitscottie, 146. *4 33 Hen. VIII. c.9. '5 Hall, 98. youthful

youthful vigour, when Shakespeare delineated human nature, even in the wildness of a fairy creation. But historical informations are not fatisfactory, and we can only conclude that the revival of letters discredited mysteries, and propagated a purer tafte for dramatick composition. We discover that a comedy from Plautus was performed at court, where, at Christmas, plays, or rather fhort interludes, were often represented so. But the revival of letters introduced the drama into schools and colleges; plays were composed by professors, and performed by their pupils: nor did grave lawyers, at their annual festivals. disdain the laurels acquired on the stage 87. These. however, were temporary stages; but the church is ftill to be regarded as an established theatre. licenfed, not indeed by divine permission, for the gratuitous exhibition of religious spectacles. Dispossessed by the reformers, or interdicted from preaching by the king's fupremacy, the popish clergy seceded to secular stages, and endeavoured to discredit the gospellers by farces more efficacious and popular than their former fermons. The reformers retaliated, by converting the mysteries of the church into a satirical representation of the corruptions of popery; and repeated ordinances were afterwards neceffary to suppress these ludicrous polemics of

¹⁶ Hall, p. 3. 67. 256.

⁸⁷ Warton's Hift. Poet. vol. ii. 366. At Gray's-Inn, during the celebration of Christmas, a play was exhibited by the students, so offensive to Wolsey, that he imprisoned the author, a serjeant Roe, and deprived him of his cois. Hall, 154.

the church and stage ⁵⁸. In churches the performers were chiefly the choiristers; at court they were probably minstrels, of whom a company followed Queen Margaret from England, and exhibited several plays or mysteries at the Scottish court ⁵⁹. The minstrels, who disappeared under Henry VIII., were probably converted, by the prevalence of the atrical amusements, into itinerant players; in the succeeding reign, an established and apparently a numerous profession. ⁵⁰

Bear-baiting. A more ignoble, perhaps a more popular fpectacle, confifted of bears; "of which," fays Erafmus, "many herds are maintained in Britain, for the purpose of dancing." Bear-baiting was a favourite diversion, exhibited as a suitable amusement for a princess."

Domestic diversions.

The winter folflice, when the fun regains his northern direction, was celebrated by our remote and idolatrous ancestors; and Christianity, unable to suppress the festival, transferred it under the same name to a different day. At Christmas, or the feast of Yule 92, peculiar dishes have been always employed, and every domestic diversion

Warton, vol. iii. p. 198. Burnet's Hift, Ref. vol. i. p. 318.

Burnet's Hift, Ref. vol. i. p. 318.

Burnet's Hift, Ref. vol. i. p. 318.

Warton, vol. iii. p. 198. Burnet's Hift, Ref. vol. i. p. 318.

⁶⁹ Leland's Collect. vol. iv. p. 299, 200. Twenty-pence was the established price of each play exhibited at Christmas in the Northumberland family, and the annual expence of such representations amounted only to 33 shillings. Northumberland Household Book.

Warton ut fupra. Pinkerton justly remarks that the minfirel, in the entertainment of Queen Elizabeth at Killingworth, is introduced as a character of former times. Scottish Ballads, Pref. 74.

duced as a character of former times. Scottish Ballads, Pref. 74.

Steafmi Adagia, p 361. Leland's Collect. vol. iv. p. 299.

Festis Iolensis, as it is translated from the Scandinavian language. Vid. Baillie's Lettres sur les Sciences et sur l'Atlantide.

adopted that tends to cheer or to diffipate the gloom of winter. To regulate, or rather to promote fuch pastimes, a lord or abbot of misrule was created 93; but of these amusements, perhaps, the most rational was the recital of old and romantic tales. The domestic amusements, in a period subfequent to the prefent, are thus enumerated: "The ordinary recreations which we have in "winter are cardes, tables and dice, shovel " board, cheffe-play, the philosopher's game, " fmall trunkes, billiards, muficke, maskes, fing-"ing, dancing, ule-games, catches, purposes, " questions; merry tales of errant knights, kings, " queens, lovers, lords, ladies, giants, dwarfs, "thieves, fayries, goblins, friars, witches, and "the rest 94." Among these amusements cards began to predominate, to be prohibited by parliament, and licenfed by the king. Gaming became more inordinate and ruinous95; but let not cards be therefore depreciated; an happy invention, which, adapted equally to every capacity, removes the invidious distinctions of nature, beflows on fools the pre-eminence of genius, or reduces wit and wifdom to the level of folly.

⁹³ In Scotland, the Abbot of Unreason. Arnot's Hift, Edin.

⁹⁴ Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy, p. 271.

⁹⁵ Rymer's Feed. vol. xiii. p. 330. vol. xiv. p. 707. Fitzherbert, 98.

this way, little yet, me words the school read from the any or solver of Administrative Seasons for his which were the property of the A better place of the company of the last manager of the total are shally replication to the state of the education of materials and analysis of a passes of agents are produced by the pathogoday and the contract of discount from both and a code, depute, have been published by the party of the part of the dimension of the South Annual State of the State o Commercial Bloody to the Sing Characteries top of out a family for the foreign persons - serbal graph median rough graph (158,500) parameters given at a thought bright in a lander size and from the expension and annual no determ he brigar description and palent ones you the could be but at 1 my stables his war subble. a many ment process, many place or many place and and the public will be sufficiently be suffering the sufficient and th

APPENDIX

TO THE

SIXTH BOOK.

NUMBER I.

BIRCHMS. 4160.5. collated with HARL. MS. 482. fol. 128.

[The original of this, in an old written hand, is in the hands of Sir Robert Cotton, 18th August 1616.]

Perkin Warbeck's Proclamation, published in the Time of his Rebellion in the Beginning of the Reign of Henry VII.

RICHARD, by the grace of God, king of England and of France, lord of Ireland, prince of Wales: To all those that these our present letters shall see, hear, or read, and to every of them, greeting. And whereas we, in our tender age, escaped, by God's great might, out of the Tower of London, and were fecretly conveyed over the fea to other divers countries, there remaining certain years as unknown; the which feafon it happened one Henry, fon to Edmond Tydder, earl of Richmond created, fon to Owen Tydder, of low birth, in the county of Wales, to come from France and entered into this our realm, and by fubtle false means to obtain the crown of the fame unto us of right appertaining. Which Henry is our extreme and mortal enemy; as foon as he had knowledge of our being alive, imagined, compaffed, and C C 2 wrought

wrought all the fubtle ways and means he could devise to our final destruction, infomuch as he hath not only falfely furmifed us to be a feigned person, giving us nicknames, fo abusing your minds, but also, to deter and put us from our entry into this our realm, hath offered large fums of money to corrupt the princes in every land and country; and that we have been retained with and made importune labour to certain of our fervants about our perfon, some of them to murder our person, and other to forfake and leave our righteous quarrel, and to depart from our fervices, as by Sir Robert Clyfford and other was verified and openly proved; and, to bring his curfed and malicious intent aforesaid to his purpose, he hath subtilly and by crafty means levied outrageous and importable fums of money upon the whole body of our realm, to the great hurt and impoverishing of the same: All which subtle and corrupt labours by him made, to our great jeopardy and peril, we have, by God's might, graciously escaped and over-paffed as well by land as by fea, and be now with the right high and mighty prince our dearest cousin the king of Scots; which, without any gift or other thing by him defired or demanded to the prejudice or hurt of us or our crown or realm, hath full lovingly and kindly retained us, by whose aid and supportation we, in proper person, be now, by God's grace, entered into this our realm of England, where we shall shew ourselves openly unto you; also confounding our faid aforesaid enemy in all his falfe fayings, and also every man of reason and discretion may well understand that him needed not to have made the forefaid coftages and importune labour if we had been fuch a feigned person as he untruly furmifeth, afcertaining you how the mind and intent of the foresaid noble prince our dearest cousin is, that if that he may find or fee our fubjects and natural liege people, according to right and the duty of their allegiance, refort lovingly unto us with fuch power as by their puissance fhall

shall move, be able of likelyhood to distress and subdue our enemies, he is fully fet and determined to return home again quietly with his people into his own land, without doing or fuffering to be done any hurt or prejudice unto our realm, or to the inhabitants of the fame. Also our great enemy, to fortify his false quarrel, hath caused divers nobles of this our realm whom he hath fuspect and stood in dread of, to be cruelly murdered, as our coufin the lord Fitzwater, fir William Stanley, fir Robert Chamberlayne, fir Simon Montford, fir Robert Radcliffe, William Daubeney, Humphry Stafford, among others, befides fuch as have clearly bought their lives; fome of which nobles are now in the fanctuary. Also he hath long kept and yet keepeth in prison, our right entirely well-beloved cousin Edward, fon and heir to our uncle duke of Clarence, and others, withholding from them their rightful inheritance, to the intent they should be of might and power to aid and affift us at our need, after the duty of their leigeance. He hath also married by compulsion certain of our fifters, and also the fifter of our foresaid cousin the earl of Warwick, and divers other ladies of the blood royal, unto certain of his kinfmen and friends of fimple and low degree; and putting apart all well-disposed nobles, he hath none in favour and trust about his person but bishop Fox, Smith, Bray, Lovell, Oliver King, fir Charles Somerfet, David Owen, Ryfely, fir Joseph Tuberville, Tylere, Robert Litton, Guildeford, Chumley, Emfon, James Hobart, John Cutte, Garthe, Hansey, Wyot, and fuch other caitiffs and villains of fimple birth; which, by fubtle inventions and putting of the people, have been the principal finders, occasioners, and counsellors of the mifrule and mifchief now reigning in England. we be credibly informed, that our faid enemy, not regarding the wealth and prosperity of this land, but only the fafeguard and furety of his person, hath fent into divers places out of our realm, the foresaid nobles, and caused to

be conveyed from thence to other places the treasure of this our realm, purposing to depart after, in proper perfon, with many other estates of the land, being now at his rule and disposition; and if he should be so suffered to depart, as God defend it should be, to the greatest hurt, jeopardy, and perill of the whole realm that could be thought or imagined: Wherefore we defire and pray you, and nevertheless charge you and every of you, as ye intend the furety of yourfelf, and the commonwealth of our land, your native ground, to put you in your most effectual devoirs with all dilligence to the utmost of your powers, and stop and let his passage out of this our realm: afcertaining you, that what person or persons shall fortune to take or diffress him, shall have for his or their true acquittal in that behalf after their estate and degrees, so as the most low and simplest of degree that shall happen to take or distress him, shall have for his labour one thousand pounds in money, and houses and lands to the yearly value of one hundred marks to him and his heirs for ever. We remembering these promises, with the great and execrable offence daily committed and done by our foresaid great enemy and his adherents, in breaking the liberty and franchifes of our mother holy church, to the high displeasure of Almighty God; besides the manifold treasons, abominable murders, manslaughters, robberies, extortions, the daily pilling of the people by difmes, tasks, tollages, benevolences, other unlawful impolitions and grievous exactions, with many other heinous offences, to the likely destruction and desolation of the whole realm, as God defend, shall put ourself effectually in our devoir, not as a step-dame, but as the very true mother of the child, languishing or standing in perill to redrefs and fubdue for the forefaid mischief and misrules, and to punish the occasioners and haunters thereof after their deferts, in example of others. We shall also by God's grace, and the help and affistance of the great lord

lords of our blood, with the council of other fade persons of approved policy, prudence, and experience, dreading God, and having tender zeal and affection to indifferent ministrations of justice and the public weal of the land, peruse and call to remembrance the good laws and customs heretofore made by our noble progenitors kings of England, and fee them put in due and lawful execution, according to the effect and true meaning they were first made or ordained for; fo that by virtue thereof, as well the difinheriting of rightfull heirs as the injuries and wrongs in anywife committed and done unto the fubiects of our realm, both spiritual and temporal, shall be duly redreffed, according to right, law, and good confcience; and we shall fee that the commodities of our realm be employed to the most advantage of the sameth intercourse of merchandizes betwixt realm and realm, to be ministred and handled as shall now be to the commonweal and prosperity of our subjects; and all such dismes, tasks, tollages, benevolences, and lawful impositions, and grievous exactions, as be above rehearfed, utterly to be foredune and laid apart, and never from henceforth to be called upon, but in fuch cases as our noble progenitors, kings of England, have of old time been accustomed to have the aid, fuccour, and help of their fubjects and true liegemen.

Also we will, that all such persons as have imagined, compassed, or wrought privily or apparently since the reign of our foresaid enemy, or before, any thing against us, except such as since the reign have imagined our death, shall have their free pardon for the same, of their lives, lands, and goods, so that they at this time, according to right and the duty of their allegiances, take our righteous quarrel, and part, and aid, comfort, and support us with their bodys and goods.

And over this we let you wotte, that upon our forefaid great enemy, his adherents and partakers, with all other fuch as will take their false quarrel, and stand in their defence against us with their bodys or goods, we shall come and enter upon them as their heavy lord, and take and repute them and every of them as our traitors and rebels, and fee them punished according and upon all our subjects, that according to right and the duty of their leigance will aid, fuccour, and comfort us with their powers, with their lives or goods, or victual our host for ready money; we shall come and enter upon them lovingly as their natural liege lord, and fee they have justice to them equally ministered upon their causes: wherefore we will and defire you and every of you, that incontinent upon the hearing of this our proclamation, ye, according to the duty of your allegiance, are ready yourselves in your best defensible array, and give your personal attendance upon us where we shall then fortune to be; and in your so doing ye shall find us your right, especial, and singular good lord, and so to see you recompensed and rewarded as by your fervice unto us shall be deserved

NUMBER II.

The Confession read by Perkin Warbeck when set in the Stocks on a Scaffold at Cheapside. Extracted from Grafton, p. 929. Hall, 49.

FIRST, it is to be knowne, That I was borne in the towne of Turney in Flaunders, and my father's name is John Olbeck, which fayde John Olbeck was comptroller of the faid towne of Turney, and my mother's name is Katheryn de Faro; and one of my grandfires upon my father's fide was named Diryek Olbeck, which dyed; after whose death my grandmother was maryed unto Peter Flamme, that was receaver of the forenamed towne of Turney, and deane of the botemen that rowe upon the

water or ryver called Leschelde; and my graundsire upon my mother's fide was Peter de Faro, which had in his keeping the keyes of the gate of Saint John's within the fame town of Turney; also I had an uncle called Maister John Stalyn, dwelling in the parishe of Saint Pyas within the fame towne, which had maried my father's fifter, whose name was Jone or Jane, with whome I dwelled a certayne feafon; and after I was led by my mother to Andwerp for to learn Flemishe in a house of a cousin of mine, an officer of the faid towne, called John Stienbeck, with whome I was the space of halfe a yere; and after that I returned again to Turney, by reason of the warres that were in Flaunders; and within a yere followying I was fent with a marchaunt of the faid towne of Turney named Berlo, to the marte of Andwarpe, where I fell fick, which ficknesse continued upon five moneths; and the faid Barlo fent me to borde in a skinner's house that dwelled beside the house of the Englishe nation; and by him I was from thence carried to Barowe marte, and I lodged at the figne of the Olde Man, where I abode the space of two moneths; and after this the fayd Barlo fent me with a marchant of Middelborough to fervice for to learne the language, whose name was John Strewe, with whom I dwelled from Christmas til Easter, and then I went unto Portyngale, in the company of fir Edward Bramptone's wyfe, in a ship which was called the Quene's ship; and when I was come thether, then I was put in fervice to a knight that dwelled in Lushborne, whiche was called Peter Wars de Cogna, wyth whome I dwelled an whole yere, whiche fayde knight had but one eye; and because I defyred to fee other countries, I toke licence of him, and then I put myselfe in service with a Briton, called Pregent Meno, the which brought me with him into Ireland, and when we were there arrived in the towne of Corke; they of the towne, because I was arayed with some clothes of silke of my fayde maister's, came unto me and threaped upon mee mee that I should be the duke of Clarence sonne that was before time at Duellin; and forashmuch as I denied it, there was brought unto me the holy Evangelists and the croffe by the major of the towne, which was called John le Mellen, and there in the presence of him and other I tooke my othe as the truthe was, that I was not the forfayde duke's fonne, nor nonne of his blood : and after this came unto me an Englishman, whose name was Stephen Poytron, with one John Water, and layde to me in fwearing great othes, that they knew well that I was king Richarde's baftard fonne; to whom I answered with like othes, that I was not; and then they advised me not to be afearde, but that I should take it upon me boldly, and if I would fo do, they would ayde and affift me with all their power against the king of England, and not only they, but they were affured well that the erles of Defmond and Kildare should do the same; for they forced not what parte they tooke, fo that they might be revenged upon the king of England, and fo against my will made me to learn Englishe, and taught me what I should do and fay; and after this they called me Duke of Yorke, fecond fonne of king Edward the fourth, because king Richarde's bastard sonne was in the handes of the king of England; and upon this the fayde John Water, Stephen Poytron, John Tiler, Hughbert Burgh, with many other, as the forfayde erles, entered into this false quarrell: and within a short time after the French king sent an ambasfador into Ireland, whose name was Loyte Lucas, and mayster Stephyn Fryam, to advertise me to come into Fraunce; and thence I went into Fraunce, and from thence into Flaunders, and from Flaunders into Ireland, and from Ireland into Scotland, and fo into England.

NUMBER IIL

Differtation on the Character of Perkin Warbeck, and on the Crimes imputed to Richard the Third.

THIS Appendix the author lived not to execute; and it is much to be regretted, that no memorial remains of his opinion on a fubject fo long controverted, and still fo obscure. The character of Richard, and the transactions during his troubled reign, are inseparable from the controversy concerning Warbeck; and of that controversy, a particular examination is considered as requisite to complete this volume. Historical differtation admits of minuter research, and more critical disquisition than general history; nor am I responsible if, in some particulars, these researches correspond not entirely with the text of our author.

The murder of Richard's nephews is represented by most historians as the necessary sequel of his former crimes. He meditated, it is faid, at an early period, his accession to the throne, and for that purpose promoted the execution of Clarence, his brother, and procured from parliament the attainder of his iffue. On the death of Edward IV. he intercepted the person of the young king, and imprisoned his kinfmen, conducted him with pomp and feeming respect to the Tower, obtained or extorted from the privy council the office of protector, professed in public, and with repeated oaths, his allegiance to his nephew, but concerted fecretly to despoil him of his crown. Alike regardless of the ties of friendship, of oaths, and of bloodshed, he executed, without trial, Hastings, his friend, Gray, Rivers, Vaughan, and others, from whom he apprehended obstruction to his schemes; and then circulated abfurd reports, to perfuade the people that his nephews were bastards, and himself the legitimate

legitimate heir of the crown. It was infinuated, that Richard alone was legitimate, as his brothers had fprung from their mother's illicit amours, and afferted, that Edward's previous marriage with Elizabeth Lucy, rendered his connexion with the queen adulterous, and their iffue spurious. The last topic was employed by Buckingham, who harangued the citizens on Richard's pretenfions; and obtaining a few faint acclamations, he proceeded next day, with the mayor and aldermen, to tender the crown to Richard, who, after much affected importunity, confented to reign. Such an usurpation was to be fecured by the murder of the young princes; and is it credible that Richard, the perjured Richard, whose steps to the throne were marked with blood, would abitain from the devoted lives of his nephews? Their removal was requifite for his fecurity; for conspiracies were forming to restore them to liberty, and reinstate them in their rights. That they were removed by murders is demonstrated by their fudden disappearance, and the subsequent prevailing report of their death; by Richard's inability to produce them in order to dispel such rumours; by his proposed alliance with their fifter Elizabeth, whose right to the crown was only valid in the event of their death; and by the united testimony of the principal Yorkists, who, affured that the princes were dead, joined the Lancastrians to dethrone the tyrant. The particulars of the murder were afterwards investigated, authenticated by the confession of the surviving assassins, and in a subsequent age corroborated by the accidental discovery of the bodies. Warbeck, who personated the younger brother, was therefore an impostor. His story is incredible; those who dispatched his brother spared him from compassion, and connived at his escape. In that event, instead of confuming his early youth as an obfcure wanderer, he must have speedily re-appeared in the Netherlands, at his aunt the duchess of Burgundy's court; and the partisans

of York must have been soon apprised of his miraculous escape. But he appeared not till nine years afterwards, not till the support which the duchess had given to another impostor, disclosed her ignorance of his escape, and her readiness to concur in every similar imposture, distressing to Henry. And the evidence, apparently so complete, is fortissed and rendered irresistible by Warbeck's voluntary confession at the gibbet, when he had nothing to expect from Henry's clemency, and nothing farther to apprehend from his power.

The preceding is certainly a plaufible narrative, if not entirely confistent with historical truth. Nor is its truth contested, unless by a few, whose opinion, however, the refult of judicious and accurate inquiries, is entitled to peculiar respect and attention '. The controversy between them refolves into four general divisions, or portions, I. The crimes attributed to Richard's youth; II. His usurpation or acquisition of the crown; III. The fate of his nephews; and IV.. The pretentions and character of Perkin Warbeck. But it is necessary, previous to such inquiries, to afcertain the credit due to original authorities, and these have been properly reduced to the unknown continuator of the Chronicle of Croyland Abbey, to Rous, Fabian, and Sir Thomas More. The three first were contemporary with Richard, the last with Warbeck; but Fabian was a wretched annalist, more attentive to the fuccession of mayors and sheriffs, than to the transactions of princes; and Rous, a recluse priest, seems to have written without information, but with all the bigotry and prejudice of the Lancastrian party. The Chronicle of Croyland is less partial; the author is favourable to Edward's memory, and expresses some regret at the indignities offered to Richard's body. Sir Thomas More is a copious historian, and his narrative of Richard's usurpa-

With the respected names of Carte and Walpole, may I inscribe that of the late Dr. Henry?

tion, and the murder of his nephews, has been transcribed in every subsequent Chronicle, adopted by Polydore Virgil, and followed almost implicitly by modern historians. To these Bacon has been added as an original authority; a character to which Buck is equally entitled, as both had access to original papers that are now destroyed. But in these inquiries, it is chiefly necessary to guard against the imposing authority of great names.

I. An impartial historian must exculpate Richard of the crimes imputed to his early youth 2, the murder of Henry VI., of his fon prince Edward, and perhaps of Clarence. According to the Croyland Chronicle, prince Edward, the duke of Somerfet, the earl of Devonshire, and others, were flain at the battle of Tewkesbury, or afterwards, ultricibus quorundam manibus; according to Fabian, Edward, on receiving a blow from the king, was dispatched by his fervants; but in the next century, historians, improving on the story, devolved this menial office on Clarence, Dorfet, Haftings, and Gloucester3. The death of Henry happened, according to Fabian, on the eve of Ascension, the night after king Edward's triumphal arrival in London; a concurrence of circumstances sufficient to afford just sufpicion of a violent death. It was variously related, fays Fabian; but the prevailing report was, that Richard stabbed him. The Croyland Chronicle is less explicit: Taceo hoc temporum interstitio, inventum esse corpus regis Henrici, in turrim Londiniarum exanime; parcat Deus, et spatium panitentia ei donet, quicunque tam sacrilegas manus in Christum Domini, ausus est immittere. Unde agens tyranni

² Richard, who perished prematurely at the age of thirty-two, was a youth of eighteen at the battle of Tewkesbury. It is not likely that such a boy would be employed to affassinate Henry and his son.

³ Hall, Grafton, Hollingshed. Stowe, a more judicious author, adheres strictly to Fabian. Buck quotes an ancient MS. Chronicle in Sir Robert Cotton's custody, to prove that Richard, though present, drew not his sword. Buck apud Kennet. See Chron. Croyl. p. 555.

patiensque gloriosi martyris, titulum mereaturi. The narrative indicates the popular rumour, that the martyr perished by the tyrant's (probably Richard's) hands; but we difcover from Hollingshed that the death of Henry, as recorded in certain contemporary writers, was occasioned by extreme grief for the loss of his son, his own disasters, and the ruin of his friends'. This, though afferted by writers, "favouring altogether," fays Hollingshed, "the "house of York," is the more probable, as Richard seems to have entertained too much respect for the good old king, to be the unnecessary and officious instrument of his death. After his accession, he removed the body of Henry from Chertsey, and interred it with royal solemnity at Windfor 6; a circumstance imputable only to a veneration either for the illustrious descent, or the piety of a monarch, who, because he was a fool, was reputed a faint. The pretended rumour is contradicted therefore, both by contemporary evidence, and a fair interpretation of Richard's conduct, who would not, after an interval of twelve years, revive, by any indifcreet hypocrify, a rumour fo prejudicial to his own reputation. But the following remarkable information is contained in a late edition of Shakespeare: "It has been observed to me by Mr. Edder-" ton, that it appears on the face of the public accounts " allowed in the Exchequer for the maintenance of "Henry VI. and his numerous attendants in the Tower, "that he lived to the twelfth of June, which was twenty-" two days after the time affigned for his pretended affaf-" fination; was exposed to public view at St. Paul's for " fome days, and interred at Chertfey with much folem-" nity, and at no inconfiderable expence?." If the fact be fuch, and I fee no reason to question the authority, what becomes of our ancient chroniclers? I will not speak of

⁴ Chron. Croyl. p. 556. 5 Hollingshed, vol. ii. p. 690.

⁶ Rous, p. 217. Stowe, 424.
7 Malone's Shakespeare, vol. xi. p. 653.

their accuracy; but what reliance can be placed in their truth? If Henry died not on the night of Edward's triumphal entry, there is no foundation for the fuspicion of violence; and we must conclude that Fabian and the monk of Croyland, writing at a distant period, (Fabian died in 1512,) forgot the regular succession of events, and adopted a subsequent vain surmise, in order to render their saint a martyr. These crimes originated, therefore, from the same Lancastrian prejudices that accused Richard of murdering his wise, whose death was occasioned by a lingering malady, and accelerated as the monk of Croyland conjectures and infinuates, not by poison, but her husband's neglect?

The execution of Clarence is ascribed, by our older historians, to the queen's instigation, whose intercession might have certainly saved him, and whose brother Rivers was enriched by his forseiture. But I cannot discover that Richard was a gainer, that he obtained a larger portion of his wise's inheritance. The queen's relations were ambitious and insolent; Clarence, impatient, impetuous and haughty; and, as they domineered at court, his imprudent opposition, and perhaps the temptation of a rich confiscation, provoked his sate. Their procedure was conformable to the court intrigues of the period; they began by accusing and convicting his domestics and friends, in order to impel him to some desperate counsels.

9 Chron. Croyl. p. 572.

⁸ Hollingshed, to render the murder indisputable, afferts that the wounds bled afresh at St. Paul's.

¹⁰ Rymer Feed. vol. xii. p. 95. The hypocritical language of this donation is curious, and feems to fasten the murder indisputably on Rivers. "Sciatis quod nos, inclitæ memoriæ nostræ reducentes "de grandibus injuriis, gravaminibusque offensis, non solum cariffimo "consanguineo nostro Antonio comiti Rywers, verum etiam nobilibus parentibus suis, per Georgium nuper ducem Clarenciæ indigne perpettatis, et quod idem dux, die quo obiit et antea, voluit et intendebat quod prædisus comes omnino recompensaretur." The grant insinuates that Clarence, at his death, made a nuncupative will in Rivers' favour; a proof that his conduct required exculpation.

Buckingham, connected them with the Queen's party by his marriage with her fifter, was created high-steward to pronounce the fentence; and Clarence's fate is the counterpart of Humphrey Duke of Gloucester's, who perished in the former reign, by the machinations of Queen Margaret, and Suffolk her minion. Richard, who had also quarrelled with the Queen's relations, acted with more circumfpection than Clarence; yet the fame influence that ruined his brother might have been directed afterwards against himself: nor is it probable that he would weaken his own fecurity by conniving indirectly at the destruction of Clarence. The Queen's influence was formidable, and exerted for the worst purposes, to aggrandise her family by the depression or ruin of the principal nobility. Hastings once was committed to the Tower, and his life endangered by the accusation of Rivers"; and Richard, from the ambitious views of the Queen and her kindred, and their influence during an unprincipled reign, had certainly fome reason to apprehend that Clarence's fate might extend to himfelf.

II. These transactions, then, give us no indications of Richard's character, his ambition, his cunning, or predisposition to cruelty. The succeeding events are more decisive: the young king intercepted; Rivers, Gray, and Vaughan apprehended, and with Hastings executed, without even the formality of a trial. Gloucester, as first prince of the blood, was constitutionally protector; but the Queen had certainly projected measures for retaining her influence during the minority, and securing the regency to herself or her brother. She had ordered Rivers to raise an army; a measure calculated not for escorting the King, but for preserving to themselves the possession of his person, intimidating their enemies, and usurping the

government. When the scheme was detected and counteracted in council, the efcort was limited to two thousand men; and whether these troops were brought forward, fome artifice feems to have been employed at Nottingham in detaching Gray, Rivers, and Vaughan from the King's attendants. There they were arrested; and the hints cafually furnished by historians, of Dorfet's entering the Tower, removing the treasures of the late King, and employing them partly in preparing a fleet, demonstrate that the Grays were accused, with reason, of conspiring to seize the administration, by retaining the person of the young King 12. So far Gloucester is justifiable, as he only anticipated those whose ambition threatened disturbance to the state. But the subsequent execution of these noblemen, and of Hastings, Richard's friend and confederate, must be ascribed to a premeditated scheme of usurpation. The Protector aspired to the crown, and secured it by the previous removal of every obstacle; and in these sanguinary transactions we discover the first certain indications of his ambitious defigns.

Yet our progress is arrested by an unexpected difficulty—Edward's marriage with Lady Eleanor Butler,—a fact better authenticated than historians imagine. The Croyland Chronicle, and a passage (a vague passage) in the Memoirs of Commines, were regarded as the only evidence, till the rolls of Richard's parliament were discovered and published. Yet these authorities, separately, are not satisfactory: the marriage is mentioned by Commines and the monk of Croyland, as a pretext adopted to justify Richard's usurpation; nor are the rolls of parliament of more authority, than any attestation of a salsehood that might be extorted then from a servile, or obtained to-day from a venal parliament. But there is another authority less controvertible, the respected authority of Sir Thomas More.

²² Sir Thomas More. Walpole's Historic Doubts.

His history is a highly coloured, though unfinished performance, published originally in English, afterwards in Latin, the language in which it was probably first composed. The English copy is inserted in Hall, Grafton. Stowe, and Hollingshed; but a licentious and faulty paraphrase by Strype or Kennet, has, with most authors, superfeded the original 3. The history from its very commencement is partial; it expatiates on Richard's perfonal deformity and monstrous birth, his perverseness and pravity while still in the womb; ascribes the murder of Henry to his dagger, the death of Clarence to his intrigues and ambition; and proceeds to relate fuch mysterious, and fecret transactions, as the death of the actors precluded from transpiring. At the death of Hastings, in explaining the pretext employed by Richard for baftardifing his nephews, the historian pauses, suspends his narration; reverts to the period of Edward's marriage with Elizabeth Gray, and that for the express purpose of demonstrating that his previous marriage, or precontract with another, was an obsolete calumny already refuted. He informs us that the Duchess of York, disapproved of the proposed connexion with Elizabeth Gray, endeavoured to diffuade her fon from the marriage. " The King was inflexible; " and his mother" (I translate from the Latin) "incensed at his disobedience, concerted other measures for im-" peding the match. Elizabeth Lucy, a lady of noblé " birth and exquifite beauty, had been debauched by " Edward. On the approach of the nuptials, when the banns were published, the Duchess his mother, as if to " absolve her conscience, objected with tears, that her " fon was already espoused to Elizabeth Lucy, their faith

¹³ With Hume, it certainly superseded the original, when he afferted that More mentioned Lady Butler's as well as Elizabeth Lucy's marriage, and treated them both lightly as rumours. Hist. vol. iii. p. 455. note M. Lady Butler's name is not once mentioned by More; but her story is inserted in Kennet's Version.

" plighted, and their nuptials confummated. The mar-" riage was therefore interrupted, either by the priest's " refusal, or the King's reluctance to celebrate the rites, " till an afperfion, to which his mother's fcruples had " contributed weight and authority, was examined and " disproved. Elizabeth Lucy, though instructed secretly, " and inspired with ambitious views by the Duchess, confessed, when interrogated on oath, that whatever were 44 her expectations, no matrimonial obligation had been " contracted by Edward. Thus the pretended marriage " was detected, and its falsehood published, previous to " the King's marriage with Elizabeth Gray. These cir-" cumftances," the historian concludes, " are detailed reperhaps with too much prolixity; but it is necessary to " know that the fole objection which the Protector dif-" covered against Edward's marriage was a calumny long " exploded and antiquated."

This passage, divested of its rhetoric, discloses an important historical fact -- that Edward's marriage with Lady Gray was interrupted for a time by his own mother; that fhe appeared in church when the banns were published, and with tears prohibited the celebration of the marriage, as her fon was already contracted to another. Her allegation, the more authoritative as it proceeds from a mother, is disproved by Elizabeth Lucy's confession: the historian dwells on this as a confutation of the calumny. Surely were these circumstances admitted as truth, when a mother, terrified at the violation of a facramental obligation, (marriage then was esteemed a facrament,) prohibits her fon's nuptials, a reasonable suspicion may be entertained that her objection was not without foundation. that a monarch, impetuous in his passions, and arbitrary like Edward, might either extort or fabricate the pretended confession.

But in this pretended confession there is no truth. The pretext of Richard's usurpation was his brother's precon-

tract, not with Lucy, but with Lady Eleanor Butler. Shaw, therefore, if instructed by the Protector, could not preach on Edward's precontract with Elizabeth Lucy; nor could Buckingham adopt fuch an injudicious topic in haranguing the citizens. Richard could not refort to an objection absolutely preclusive of his own pretentions; for Elizabeth Lucy had a fon by Edward, Arthur Plantagenet, afterwards Lord Lifle, whose legitimacy must have been recognifed with his mother's marriage, and his title eftablished to the crown itself. The fact is indisputable, that Richard's nephews were excluded as spurious, on account of their father's marriage with Eleanor Butler. "Often-" debatur in quodam rotulo pergameni, quod filii regis " Edwardi erant bastardi, supponendo illum præcontrax-" iffe cum quadam Alienora Boteler, antequam reginam " Elizabeth duxiffet uxorem." Cron. Croyl.—" Edward " was and stood married, and troth plight to one Dame " Eleanor Butler, daughter to the Earl of Shrewfbury, with " whom the faid King Edward had made a precontract of " matrimony long time before he made the pretended " marriage with Elizabeth Gray." Roll of Parliament. -What then does More's information amount to? He informs us that the objection was not devised by Richard, but that it had been agitated previous even to Edward's marriage. Does he disprove it? He substitutes a different female, and on her confession, which must be sictitious, argues against the existence of the marriage. The conclusion is inevitable, that the King's marriage with Eleanor Butler stands authenticated by her mother's attestation, and refuted by no contradictory evidence.

I venerate too much the character of Sir Thomas More, not to attribute, if possible, his mistakes to ignorance; but I am afraid that his narrative discovers, in the sequel, an intended and artful deviation from the truth. Fabian informs us, that Shaw preached on Sunday, to the disparagement of Edward's children, and abucion of the audi-

ence; that on Tuesday, Buckingham harangued the citizens affembled in Guildhall; and that Richard, affuming on Thursday the regal dignity, was conducted to Westminster and installed as King. Fabian in these particulars could not be mistaken, though he knew not, or neglected to mention a public instrument produced on Thursday at Barnard's castle, conceived in the name of the lords and commons, containing a recital of Richard's titles, and a fupplication for his immediate assumption of the crown. This, the Croyland Chronicle assures us, was the pretext and colour employed to justify the Protector's usurpation; but Sir Thomas More, in opposition to every historical evidence, has devised a different pretext and colour. Buckingham, and the lords of his party, attended by the mayor and aldermen and a multitude of citizens, proceeded on Wednesday to the Protector's residence, who, affecting to mistrust their intentions, appeared at a gallery to receive their address. Buckingham announced the desire of the people; Richard, after much declamatory dialogue, is perfuaded to reign; and the historian concludes with some facetious and pertinent remarks on this scenic exhibition. These circumstances are certainly possible, but they could not have escaped the observation of Fabian. A citizen and a spectator apparently of every public solemnity, he could not have failed to mention the convocation of the citizens in consequence of Buckingham's request on Tuesday, their procession to Barnard's castle, and their interview with the Protector; transactions of far more pomp and importance than Shaw's fermon at Paul's crofs, or Buckingham's speech at Guildhall. The events of Sunday, of Tuesday, and of Thursday, are in Fabian recorded with care; the transactions of Wednesday are represented by More as the necessary sequel of those on Tuesday, as occasioned by the acclamations of a few apprentices, and Buckingham's public request to the citizens to attend him on the morrow. The filence both of Fabian and the monk

of Croyland, disproves these incidents, and demonstrates, that they were interpolated by More to fupply the unoccupied interval between Buckingham's harangue on Tuesday, and the supplication presented to Richard on Thursday. His intention is obvious; to suppress the real pretext or colour employed to vindicate Richard's accession, and for that purpose he diverts our attention to a different day, and fubstitutes a different, and a false pretext. The fupplication, still engrossed in the rolls of parliament, establishes Richard's title on Edward's prior marriage with Eleanor Butler, and the confequent illegitimacy of his offspring by Elizabeth Gray. More, instead of refuting, evades the plea, fubstitutes Lucy, to conceal the marriage of Eleanor Butler, and creates a feries of fictitious transactions, to suppress the knowledge of Richard's titles, and obscure the proximate cause of his accession to the throne. Lucy, preferred it feems as a daughter by the Duchefs of York, was, according to More, nec ignobilis, quem forte virginem rex corrupet. She was the daughter of one Wiat, the wife of one Lucy, obscure persons; and if More was ignorant of her marriage with the latter, (a circumstance preclusive of her contract with Edward,) he must have been fensible that neither the Wiats nor the Lucys were then ennobled. His inadvertence has retained a circumstance historically certain. Lord Butler's widow was of noble birth; her father was the Earl of Shrewsbury, her mother the former Duke of Buckingham's daughter, and her marriage with Edward is still attested by more than common historical evidence. Had the historian maintained, instead of controverting, the existence of the marriage, our affurance would have depended on his veracity; but his attempt to confute it by the suppression of certain circumstances, and the substitution of others, demonstrates that the fact was incontestible, too strong to be fairly stated, and too stubborn to be openly resisted. His extreme anxiety, his folicitude to convince us that the accufation was calumnious, betrays his knowledge and conviction D D 4

conviction of its truth. He had explored it to the fource, traced it backward to Richard's mother, to the distant period of Edward's marriage. He affures us that it was not invented by Richard, and explains it at length, ut melius cognoscatur quam falsam olim revictam, rejectamque columniam pretexuit. Ne ignoraretur protector, Edwardi filiis natalium vitium objecturus, nibil reperisse quod illius matrimonio objicerit, præter encussam olim et antiquatam calumniam. Yet this antiquated calumny, fo long and fo industriously exploded, cannot bear a relation without the most material deviation from truth. His very folicitude to explain, his industrious researches to discover, the truth, are evidence against him. He had discovered its origin at Edward's marriage (1463), and must have underflood its application at Richard's accession in 1483. In every particular he suppresses the truth, and but for a cafual discovery in the sequel of his history, compared with a paffage in the Memoirs of Commines, the world would have still been ignorant, that Lady Butler's marriage with Edward was examined in council, that it was fupported by the depositions of different witnesses, and established by the testimony of Stillington the bishop, who performed the ceremony.

An historian, with whose philosophical genius the minute details of history were scarcely compatible, has remarked, that the statute declaring the illegitimacy of Edward's children, appeared on Henry's accession and marriage with Elizabeth, too despicable to be reversed by parliament. Henry's policy in suppressing that statute, affords additional proof of Edward's marriage with Eleanor Butler, and an adequate solution of More's intentional perversion of the fact. The Year Book informs us, that the judges, assembled by Henry to consult together on the repeal of the statute proposed, that it should be "taken" off the rolls, annulled, cancelled, destroyed, and burnt," without being rehearsed, its contents divulged, or more

than a few words of the preamble recited. The reason affigned was that the statute, because it was " false, " shameful, and seditious, ought to be put in perpetual " oblivion; for if any part of the specialty of the matter " had been rehearfed, then had it remained in remem-" brance always." The ftatute would have been deftroyed without the ceremony of being reverfed, but an act was necessary to indemnify those to whose custody the rolls were entrusted". The statute was abrogated therefore in parliament, taken off the rolls and destroyed; and those possessed of copies were directed, under the penalty of fine and imprisonment, to deliver them to the chancellor; " fo " that all things faid or remembered in the bill and act " be for ever out of remembrance and forgotten16." The statute was abrogated without recital, in order to conceal its purport, and obliterate if possible the facts it attested; and a propofal for reading it, that Stillington Bishop of Bath might be responsible for its falsehood, was over-ruled and stifled by the King's immediate declaration of pardon17. Its falsehood would have merited and demanded

detec-

15 Touts les justice in l'Exchequer chambre, par le commandement le roi, communerent pour le reversal del' bil et act, qui bastard les ensants le roi E. IV. et Eliz. sa semme. Et pristeront sa direction pour ceo, que le bill et l'act fuit cy, faux et slandereux, q'ills ne voill reberses le matter ne l'esse de la matre mes tant solement que Ric. sift un faux et seditioux bill, a estre mis a luy, qui commence sic, pleaseth it Your Highness to consider these articles ensuing, &c. sans pl. rehersal. And this was the consideration of the justices, that they rehearse no more of the matter, that the matter might be and remain in perpetual oblivion for the falseness and shamefulness of it. And is any part of the especialty of the matter, &c. Nota icy bien la policy. Nota enseient q'ill ne puissoient estre pris hors del record sans act del parliament pour l'indemnite et jeopardie d'eux q'avoient les records in lour gard.— Year Book, Hilary Term, I Hen. I.

16 Rot. Parl. 1 Hen. note 18.—But for the Year Book, it would be impossible, from the short recital of the preamble, to discover which of Richard's acts was reversed by this statute. Hume's mistake was unavoidable, as he overlooked the Year Book which Carte had quoted.

-Carte's Hift. vol. ii. p. 824.

¹⁷ Et meme le jour le bill fuit leu en parliament chambre, mes fuit mouve per ascun deux que ser, bon ordre que cestuy que fist ceo faux

detection, not concealment; and Stillington, whose evidence had formerly established the marriage, was, if perjured, an object of punishment, not of pardon. But why this precaution to efface all knowledge of Edward's precontract, the pretext of Richard's usurpation or accession? The fuppression of the statute without inquiry into its truth, or explanation of its purport, demonstrates that the recital was dangerous, the fact incontestable; otherwise it is not conceivable that Henry would prohibit an investigation fo necessary to vindicate his own accession and his Queen's legitimacy, or pardon Stillington, whom he never forgave; and whose negotiations to procure the delivery of Henry, when an exile in Britanny, into Edward's hands, had rendered him fo peculiarly obnoxious, that his destruction was effected, afterwards on the false pretext of his having participated in Lincoln's rebellion13. But that which Henry interdicted, the historian's, publishing under his tyrannical auspices, durst not venture to revive or investigate. His danger would have been confiderable had he affigned as the means of Richard's accession, the bill of supplication engrossed in a statute erased from the record, the knowledge of which was intercepted, and the possession even of a copy prohibited as criminal; but his destruction would have been inevitable had he perpetuated a fact which the legislature, obsequious to the deliberations of the judges and the injunctions of Henry, had determined to confign to perpetual oblivion. In concealing Edward's marriage with Eleanor Butler, More cooperated directly with Henry's intentions, and in creating a refutable, fictitious marriage with Elizabeth Lucy, en-

bill reformera ceo, et discient que le evesque de B. (Stillington then Bishop of Bath and Wells,) fist le bill, et les seigniors vouloient aver luy in le parliament chambre a aver luy respondre a ceo. Et le roy disait, que il avoit luy pardonner et pour ceo il ne vouluit plus fait a luy; quod nota, constantia regis. Et quidam episcopi fuerunt contra ipsum. — Year Book, ibid.

18 Godwin de Preful. Angl. v. Stillington.

¹⁹ More's History was written according to Grafton in 1508.

deavoured to discredit all traditionary remembrance of Richard's title.

I observed that the authorities separately were not satisfactory; collectively they are forcible, perhaps conclufive. Stillington's evidence has been rejected as that of an unprincipled priest, actuated either by servility to Richard, or revenge for the injuries fuftained from Edward. We now discover, that at a period long previous to Richard's accession, Edward's mother was apprised of his marriage, and strove ineffectually to preferve him from bigamy; that her information originated either from the injured lady, or from Stillington, the priest who pronounced the ceremony, and in whose hands the contract was deposited; that Edward, whether to recover the contract, or to revenge and punish the disclosure of his fecret. difgraced and imprisoned the Bishop, nor released him till a fevere fine was extorted 20, that the testimony of the latter, thus corroborated by Edward's refentment, was with other depositions produced and sustained as satisfactory in council; that it was afterwards recognized in full parliament21; and finally, that it was established incontestably in the succeeding reign, by the tacit confession of Henry, who endeavoured to suppress the fact; and of those historians who, in order to disprove it, converted a regular marriage, folemnized according to the rights of the church, into a supposed precontract with a different woman; and attempted, on her fictitious confession, to

L'evesque de Bath mit en avant a ce duc de Glocestre, qui ledit. Edward, estant fort amoureux d'une dame d'Angleterre lui promit de l'epouser, pourveu qu'il coucha avec elle, ce que la consentit: et dit l'eveque quil les avoit epousez et n'y avoit que lui, et eux deux.— En plain parlement, le duc de Glocestre sit degrader les deux silles du dit Edward, et declara bastardes, sous couleur de quelque cas quil preuver par un evesque de Bath in Angleterre, qui autrefeis avoit un grand credit avec Edward, et puis sa desapointa, et tient en prison, et le rançonne pour un somme d'argent; le quel evesque disait qu' Edward avoit promis sei de marriage a une dame quil nommoit et en avoit saits la prommisse entre les mains du dit eveque.— Mem. de Commines, vol. i. pp. 437. 497.

obviate the existence of a previous marriage. More than that, we obtain the unequivocal testimony of Buckingham; who, on the death of his grandfather at the battle of Northampton, became, at the age of five, a ward of the crown, and according to feudal usage, was felected during his minority, as an advantageous husband for the Queen's fifter 22. During his early youth, while educated under the tuition of Edward, he was probably ignorant of Lady Butler's marriage; but his subsequent confederacy with Richard against his wife's relations, can be attributed only to a keen refentment at the discovery of the injury his cousin had fustained. His interest during the administration of the Woodvilles was quivalent to whatever he could expect with Richard; and unless some secret difgust be admitted, he had no temptation to defert his connections. No rational motive could actuate his conduct, but that conviction which he felt and expressed, and those passions which would prompt a proud and indignant fpirit to renounce his interests, and relinquish every political connection, to facrifice even the lives of his friends, in order to revenge the dishonour of his family. That conviction of which he affures us, when alone prefumable as a motive, from the tenor of his conduct, is an indisputable testimony to the truth of the marriage. " Richard," he informs us, " brought in instruments, " authentic doctors, authorities of the law, with deposi-" tions of divers witnesses, testifying Edward's children " to be bastards; which depositions then I thought to be " as true as now I know them to be false and seigned 2,". His belief is certain; his fubsequent incredulity may be regarded as a gratuitous concession to Morton, with whom, in concerting rebellion, a difavowal of his former con-

²² Dugdale's Baronage. — Buckingham's education was committed by Edward to his fifter the Duche's of Exeter. Id.

²³ Grafton, Hall, in continuation of More.—See in the note above, the quotation from Commines.

viction was a decency not to be omitted by historians. Whether he was afterwards disabused of error, or perverted by ambition, may be justly questioned, when his deliberate conviction had already adjudged the crown to Richard. "When the faid depositions were before us " (lords spiritual and temporal, evidently the council,) " read, and diligently heard, Richard stood up, bare-" headed, faying, " Well, my lords, even as I and you " would that my nephews should have no wrong, so I " pray you do me nothing but right; for these witnesses " and fayings of famous doctors be true, for I am only "the indubitable heir to Richard Plantagenet Duke of "York, adjudged to be the very heir to the crown of this " realm by the authority of parliament." Which things, " (fays Buckingham,) fo by learned men for verity to us " declared, caused me and others to take him for our " lawful and undoubted prince and fovereign lord 24." I am unwilling unnecessarily to criminate human nature; and as Richard's conduct, previous to his appointment to the protectorate, may receive an explication on justifiable motives, I will not prefume that, in the allegiance fworn to his nephew, he was intentionally perjured; that he meditated schemes to support his pretensions, or was conscious even of his right to the crown. Were conjecture admissible in historical controversy, I would advance, as a reasonable supposition, that the Duchess of York, a prudent woman, who had guarded the fecret from the inconfiderate Clarence 25, had concealed it with equal circumspection from Richard, nor disclosed it till his return from the north after Edward's death, when his power as protector enabled him to vindicate his title, and exclude a baftard race from the throne. But whatever was the period at which his ambition commenced, his right of fuccession, as the heir of Richard Plantagenet his father,

²⁴ Grafton, Hall, in continuation of More.

²⁵ See vol. ix. ch. I. fect. 5.

is to me indifputable. Clarence's iffue was excluded by attainder, and Edward's marriage with Lady Butler is established at present by such evidence as it is possible either to obtain or expect, such as would be transmitted through the medium of an hostile faction, always malignant, and ultimately victorious. If the records of the Yorkists have perished with their family, the truth, though suppressed by their enemies, may be still traced in the partial and contradictory narratives of those historians, who, at a subsequent period, disfigured the annals of a short reign, disquieted and unfortunate, but not inglorious.

III. The preceding discussions, as preparatory to our inquiries concerning the young princes confined in the Tower, give us few indications of Richard's character, his historical character, and no affurance whatever of the fate of his nephews. Instead of a perjured traitor, we recognize the legitimate sovereign of England. Instead of a violent usurpation, we discover an accession, irregular according to modern usage, but established without violence on a legal title. The crimes imputed to his youth disappear; and in the execution of Rivers, Gray, and Hastings, if the ultimate object was to secure his succession, some intermediate mysterious cause will be suspected by those, whose inquiries have taught them to peruse our ancient historians with extreme mistrust.

Richard,

²⁶ The execution of Gray and Rivers may be confidered as a just retribution for the murder of Clarence: nor is Richard's morality highly censurable, if he inflicted a just revenge on his brother's murderers without reversing the attainder of his issue, that established his own succession to the crown. The effect of the attainder was too remote, consequential, and precarious, to involve Richard in a share of the murder; and acquitting him of any participation in that crime, we must allow that, according to the spirit of those times, his revenge was justifiable, prompted at least by a laudable resentment. Hastings's execution is more mysterious. More's information has been considered as traditionary, gleaned from his converse with Richard's cotemporaries; but a tradition recorded by Harrington (1596) assigns his his-

Richard, according to these historians, assuming on the ninth, or the nineteenth of June, the regal dignity, was

tory to Morton, (Malone's Shakespeare, vol. v. p. 562.) and a Latin History of Richard, composed by that prelate, was preserved in the last century by Roper, a descendant of More, to whom, as a favourite pupil, the book had devolved. (Buck. apud Kennet, 546.) That fuch was the fource of his information, the fubstratum on which he constructed his history, is farther confirmed by the English edition, which, extending beyond the period of Richard's accession, comprehends the murder of his nephews, the fecret difaffection of Buckingham, and terminates abruptly in the midst of an interesting conversation between the latter and Morton. The conversation is resumed and continued by Hall and Grafton, in a manner equally minute and circumftantial, nor apparently less authentic; and as the particulars could only be obtained from Morton, I conclude that they and More had access to the same original information, and attributed the materials of the history in question to Morton, the ornamental and classical varnish to More. This discovery may exculpate More from the imputation of propagating deliberate falsehood. Not a spectator merely, but an actor chiefly inftrumental in Richard's destruction: Morton's knowledge and intentional mifrepresentation of Edward's marriage, and Richard's title, bestows additional confirmation on both. The seizure and execution of Hastings, at which he was present, is preceded in his history by dreams and omens, and related with circumstances fo ridiculous, that they provoke a fmile amidst all the tragic declamation of the drama. The Protector, at a council held in the Tower, requested a dish of frawberries from Morton for dinner, retired for an interval, but returning with a countenance expressive of wrath and vengeance, exclaimed at the forcery practifed on his person by the Queen, Jean Shore, and Hastings her paramour, and bared his withered arm as a proof of their guilt. The most prominent circumstances are historically certain; a cry of treason was raised without, the Protector's armed attendants, on his opening the door, rushed into the council, apprehended Hastings, the primate, and Morton, and while the latter were imprisoned, the former was conducted to immediate execution. [Fabian.] But the intermediate circumftances are false and absurd; Jean Shore was the mistress of Dorset, not of Hastings, and, from an original letter of Richard's, was treated certainly with peculiar lenity. (Historical Doubts, p. 118.) But why these dreams and predictions of Hastings's death? Shall we believe that Richard's arm was withered and useless, Richard a warrior, expert at arms? or if secret, that he would expose his dishonour; if notorious, that he would render it the abfurd pretext for the murder of his friend? What do these multiplied abfurdities amount to? The artificial glare with which the whole is furrounded, generates a fuspicion that some treason was crowned on the fixth of July, and thereafter began a progress through Gloucester, Warwick, and Coventry, northward to York; during which the young princes were fecretly murdered. These events are recorded as passing in rapid succession, as connected together; the execution of Hastings with Richard's accession, the death of the princes with his coronation, and immediate removal from London. The public records correct these dates; the accession took place on the twenty-seventh of June, about a fortnight after the execution of Hastings, and the coronation was celebrated on the fixth of July, in the presence of almost every peer of the realm. The progress north commenced in the beginning of September, and till that period we are assured that the princes continued alive.

During this expedition, affociations were formed, and various infurrections projected for their delivery; but when these were matured, and Buckingham proclaimed as the leader of the enterprise, a report prevailed that the princes had suffered a violent death. Such is the concise and barren account of contemporary writers, whose narrations rather attest the existence of the rumour than the truth of the murder, and to whom the manner in which it was perpetrated was then unknown. Succeeding historians have adopted that which, among different traditionary stories, appeared the most probable to Sir Thomas More. Richard, during his progress, presaging danger from the lives of his nephews, dispatched an attendant from Gloucester with orders to Brakenbury for their immediate death. Brakenbury resisted the dishonest pro-

detected and punished, a conspiracy in which Morton had participated with Hastings, and was therefore desirous to remove from view.

²⁷ Compare Grafton's lift of the peers present at the coronation with the lords summoned to parliament in the reigns of Edward IV. and Henry VII., and it will appear that their number amounted to about thirty-fix, of whom thirty-two attended the coronation, and in all probability concurred in presenting the bill of suppplication. Henry's first parliament was not attended by half the number. See Parliamentary Hist.

poial, and Green the meffenger returned with his refufal to Richard at Warwick, who complaining to a page that his commands were unexecuted, was directed to Sir James Tyrell (then afleep with his brother in the next apartment) as an afpiring man, depreffed by Ratcliffe, and likely to perpetrate whatever was enjoined. Tyrell accordingly was commissioned next morning to receive, for a fingle night, the keys and the command of the Tower from Brakenbury, and repairing to London, employed Dighton and Forest to stifle the princes while asleep at midnight. The bodies were buried at the bottom of the staircase, but were asterwards removed by the chaplain; and Tyrell, having performed his commission, hastened back to Richard, by whom he was knighted, much honoured, and highly rewarded.

It has been observed with truth, that these circumstances are improbable, and partly false; that Richard, before his departure from London, would have sounded Brakenbury in devising the murder; nor would such a proposal be entrusted either to a letter, or to verbal credentials; that Richard would not have communicated his disappointment so freely; nor was Tyrell, already knighted and master of the horse, in a situation to be either depressed by Ratclisse, or recommended to the King's notice by a nameless page; and finally, that Brakenbury on his resusal would not have been superseded for the palpable purpose of murder, nor again entrusted with the command of the Tower. ²⁵

But the story is not destitute of evidence, the confession of the assassing, to be noticed in the sequel, and the accidental discovery, in the last century, of bones correspondent in size to those of the princes, buried in the Tower, under the rubbish of a ruinous staircase. They were found, it is said, in a chest or cossin at the depth of

ten feet, in rebuilding a staircase conducting from the King's lodgings to the chapel in the White Tower, and were deposited as the remains of the princes, by Charles II. in Westminster Abbey 29. The identity has been inferred from their fize and irregular interment, indicating, as the ground was not confecrated, a fecret murder from the coincidence of the place with historical description, and from the prefumption that no children unconnected with the crown were exposed in the Tower to a violent death 30. To me the inference appeared at first to be ftrong and conclusive; but there are difficulties not to be furmounted or obviated: - 1. The coincidence of place is extremely doubtful. The princes, according to a tradition preserved in the Tower, were lodged in a building near the water-gate, and Tyrell, as we are informed, remained, till the murder was finished, at the bottom of the ftaircafe, beneath which he interred their bodies 21. They were buried therefore under the stairs of their lodging; but Henry, to whom the affaffins disclosed the place, fought ineffectually to difcover the bodies, and concluded at last that the chaplain, who was then dead, had removed them elsewhere. Their bodies therefore must have been transferred from the staircase of their lodging, to that of the chapel; and those who were present at the discovery and inspected the bones, admitted that they were found, not in the place where Tyrell had deposited, but where the priest had removed, them 32. That place was un-

30 Hume's Hist. vol. iii. p. 459. note M.

31 Bacon, p. 608. The place were the princes were confined,

has been denominated the Bloody Tower.

²⁹ Sandford's Genealog. Hift.

³² See Sandford's Genealogical History, where, on the authority of the King's surgeon, who was present at the discovery, the place where the bones were found, is explicitly marked, and admitted to be disferent from the place where Tyrell interred them. Whoever examines the situation of the chapel, and its distance from the staircase, still shewn in the bloody Tower, must be convinced that the bones were not discovered where Tyrell was said to have buried the bodies.

known, its coincidence with the fituation of the bodies is conjectural, nor is it probable that a staircase should be twice felected to conceal their remains; but it is certain that the chaplain, when directed by Richard to remove their bodies to a place less unsuitable to the sons of a king, would have given them a regular interment in confecrated ground.—2. The identity of the bones is uncer-The Tower was both a palace and a state prison, the recepticle of Lollards, heretics, and criminals, within which those who died by difease or violence were always buried: the discovery therefore of bones is neither furprising nor, perhaps, uncommon; but we must guard against the extreme credulity perceptible in the officers. who, perfuaded that the princes were fecretly interred in the Tower, appropriated every skeleton to them. Bones found at a former period in a deferted turret were regarded as the remains of one of the princes; though some entertained a ludicrous suspicion, that they belonged to an old ape who had clambered thither and perished 33. As to the bones in question, we are merely informed that their fize corresponded with the age of the princes; and without affurance of the time at which, from the state of the bones, they were probably interred, we are required to believe, that during a period of two centuries they remained unconfumed, and the cheft in which they were deposited entire. We know not whether the situation indicated a fecret murder by an irregular interment in unconfecrated ground; they were buried beneath the staircase of a consecrated chapel, in ground which, previous to the erection of the staircase, had perhaps been confecrated as a place of interment. They were buried ten feet beneath the furface, a depth which the murderers had no leifure, the priest no occasion, to penetrate; his business was to inter them decently, not to conceal

33 Buck. p. 552.

them; and on the supposition of their removal to consecrated ground, who can distinguish their remains from others? But the depth of a grave on the outside of a chapel, indicates people that had died of the pestilence, and were buried precipitately in the same cossin without the church, and at such a distance from the surface, as to prevent the danger or the dread of contagion. I know not that children of royal blood were alone exposed in the Tower to a violent death; but the discovery of a skeleton in the ruins of the Bastile, would have been no proof that the man in the iron mask was assassinated. 34

There is another objection to More's relation, if established, absolutely preclusive of the fact. A singular, and, for Richard's memory, a providential concurrence of circumstances, enables us to ascertain the duration, and to trace the particular stages, of that progress, in the course of which the supposed destruction of his nephews was planned and accomplished. He was at Westminster on Sunday the thirty-first of August, where he ratified a league with the King of Castile, and at York on the seventh of September, the day preceding his fecond coronation 35. Windfor, Oxford, and Gloucester, are specified as the three first stages of his journey; and he seems to have carried his Queen to Windsor, with the Spanish ambaffadors, on Monday the first of September, and leaving them there, to have proceeded on Tuesday to Oxford, where, at the requisition of the university, he released Morton, it is faid, from the Tower. At Woodstock, which he probably reached that evening, the popular clamour induced him to difafforest an extensive circuit, an-

³⁴ When the identity of place is removed, it is obvious, that the prefumption arifing from the fize of the bones is flight in itself, and obviated both by the discovery of similar bones at a former period, and the certainty that private murders were not uncommon, and interments frequent and customary in the Tower. Arthur Lord Liste, the brother of these princes, was buried, with many others, in the Tower.

³⁵ Rymer, vol. xii.

nexed by his brother to Whichwood forest 36; and at Gloucester, whither he arrived on the morrow, he honoured his ducal city by the creation or appointment of a mayor and sheriffs. These circumstances postpone his arrival in Gloucester till Wednesday the third, and he must have resumed his journey on Thursday, in order to accomplish it within the period limited. Passing through Worcester, he was rejoined at Warwick on Thursday by the Queen and the Spanish ambassadors from Windsor; and proceeding through Coventry and Leicester, he arrived on Friday at Nottingham, on Saturday at Pontefract, and on Sunday at York. With the train and impediments of a court, which limited the daily progrefs to fifty miles, the time allotted, of which the two first days were expended necessarily at Windsor and Oxford. was barely fufficient for performing the journey. Green then, if dispatched from Gloucester, or on the road thither, had no time to return to London on Wednesday, execute his commission to Brakenbury, and rejoin Richard on Thursday at Warwick; a journey upwards of two hundred miles before the establishment of regular posts. Tyrell, commissioned to superfede Brakenbury, departed early on Friday from Warwick; yet we are affured that, returning after the execution of his orders, he overtook

³⁶ Rous, p. 216. Chr. Croyl. More. The different stages of the progress are to be discovered by an inspection of these writers: the duration of it is afcertained by Rymer's Fordera, vol. xii. There is a letter, however, in Dake's Eboracum, from John Kendal, Richard's fecretary, to the mayor of York, dated at Nottingham the 23d of August, (without any year,) informing the mayor, that the court had been worshipfully received throughout the progress, and desiring pageants to be prepared for their reception at York, p. 117. Ex lib. Chart, in Cust. Com. Ebor. Were the date certain, the letter could not invalidate the authority of the records published by Rymer; but. it was written undoubtedly in the enfuing year, and dated, as I fuspect, on the 23d of September, on which day Richard was certainly at Nottingham, Rym. vol. xii. Drake apprehending that it was written previous to the coronation in the former year, and knowing that the progress was over, and that Richard was not at Nottingham on the 23d of September of that year, altered, as I imagine, the date to August. EE3

the King previous to his arrival on Sunday at York. The wardrobe roll, in which were inferted as an article of expenditure, robes provided for Edward, affords no prefumption, as was once expected, that the young prince walked in procellion at his uncle's coronation. But its information is otherwife material, that previous to the progrefs northward, Sir James Tyrell, knighted during the former reign, was mafter of the horse, and in that capacity received confiderable deliveries from the wardrobe, to be employed in the approaching coronation at York 73. The prefumption thence arising of his attendance at the coronation, is confirmed by More's narrative of his haftening after the murder of Richard, who received him with marked approbation and honour, circulated a report of the death of his nephews, and then profecuted his journey to York. Tyrell, therefore, was present, and officiated at the coronation as mafter of the horfe. The dates are infurmountable, authenticated by public instruments; they reduce this strange transaction to three days; and we are required to believe, that Tyrell, who, dispatched from Warwick on Friday, could not arrive at the Tower till Saturday, nor perpetrate the murder till midnight, departed from London on Sunday morning, and rejoined the king on the road, previous to his arrival that evening at York. We are required to believe, that two confecutive journies of five hundred miles were performed by Green and Tyrell in four days, and thefe with the interruption of two nights, and the day preparatory and previous to the murder. Such journies, with our modern roads and relays of horses, may be practicable at present; but when I review the particulars, and confider the period, I conclude without hefitation, that the fact related by More is im-

⁷³ See Mill's account of wardrobe roll in the Archeologia, vol.i. from which it appears that the wardrobe keeper had taken the opportunity of charging in the diffurfements of Richard's coronation, the robes formerly provided for the Lord Edward. See also Hist. Doubts, p. 65.

possible. He knew not, it is evident, that the progress was ftrictly limited to feven days; but finding the month of August unoccupied, appropriated that period to Richard's progrefs and Sir James Tyrell's adventures; prolonged the stay of the former at Gloucester, Warwick, and other cities, till the latter rejoined him, and about the end of August, conducted them both to York, before the departure of either from London. The time affumed was requifite for the various transactions recorded; restricted to the short space of a week, it demonstrates that these are fictitious; that Richard could not be overtaken on Thursday at Warwick, by a messenger fent on Wednefday from Gloucester, to the Tower of London; and that Tyrell, difpatched thither on Friday, and employed on Saturday in felecting inftruments, removing the keepers, and making other arrangements preparatory to the murder, could not possibly perpetrate the fact, rejoin Richard, and reach York, in the space of a day. 38

The murder, however, is still possible, as the credit of contemporary writers remains unimpaired; and of these, as the most credulous and prejudiced, Rous shall be first examined, and dismissed for ever: "Gloucester obtained, "or rather invented, the title of Protector, to promote himself, and disinherit King Edward, who, with his brother, was imprisoned so closely, that the particular death by which they were martyred (qua morte martyrizati sunt) was known to sew. The throne of the murdered kings was then usurped by their protector, Richard the tyrant, who had remained two years in his mother's womb, and at Fotheringay, on the feast of eleven thousand virgins, was born with long hair, and his teeth complete: at his nativity the Scorpion was ascendant, a sign in the

³³ Carte was the first that discovered this argument; but a typographical error in the dates renders it, as explained in his history, absolutely unintelligible. Hist. vol. xi. p. 816.

"house of Mars; and as the Scorpion's aspect is bland and fawning, its sting mortal, such was Richard, who received his master Edward with kisses and fawning caresses, and in three months, murdered him and his brother, possoned his own wise, and what was most described both to God and the English nation, slew the fanctified Henry VI. "The historian who deduces Richard's crimes from a calculation of his nativity, may attest the popular belief and rumour; but his private information must rest, where he has placed it, on the authority of the stars.

The princes, according to Fabian, were on Richard's accession, " put under sure keeping in the Tower, in " fuch wife as they never came abroad;" and afterwards " the common fame ran, that King Richard had put them " unto fecret death; for the which and other causes had " within the breaft of the Duke of Buckingham, the faid "Duke conspired against him." "Remanserunt Ed-« wardi filii fub certa deputata custodia infra turrim, pro quorum liberatione, exceperunt populi auftrales et oc-« cidentales plurimum fubmurmurare, inire cœtus et « conventiuncula, maximeque hic qui per franchesias et fanctuaria dispersi funt. Cumque tandem populus ad " ulcifcenfum confiderationes iniret, factis publicis pro-" clamationibus, quod Dux Buckinghamiæ facti pænitens " capitaneus in hac re principalis existerit, vulgatum est dictos Edwardi filios, qua genere violenti interitus ignoraer retur, decessisse in fata "." Such is the authentic information derived from contemporaries, expressive only of the prevailing opinion; yet of an opinion supposed to be corrobrated by the repentant conviction of Buckingham, the belief of the infurgents, and the politive testimony of those Yorkists who joined the Lancastrians, and promoted Richmond to the throne of England.

Perhaps there is too much refinement in supposing, that for different purposes, a similar report was propagated both by Richard and Buckingham; by Richard to perfuade the people that the death of his nephews rendered him indifputably their fovereign; by Buckingham, to convince them that the murder of the princes required and justified his resistance, the degradation of the tyrant. and the elevation of a new line to the throne. We are informed by More, that Richard circulated the first report of the death of his nephews, an improbable circumstance on the supposition of their murder; but we are affured by the monk of Croyland, that the rumour prevailed not, till the infurgents were prepared for revolt, not till Buckingham was proclaimed their leader 41. Such an opportune report, diverting their attention from the young princes whom they had confederated to refcue, to the exiled Richmond, generates a fuspicion that it was diffeminated purpofely by Buckingham and Morton, and afterwards prepofterously attributed to Richard. Their motives hitherto have never been examined. Buckingham's family had been Lancastrians; his father perished at the battle of St. Albans, his grandfather at that of Northampton; and Morton, a Lancastrian also, had been faithful to Henry VI. in his lowest fortune. Buckingham's defection has been variously ascribed to resentment or penitence; refentment at the refusal of deserved rewards, and repentance of his treachery to Edward's children. Every reward that could enfure a friend, or attach a fubject, had been accumulated on him; and it is not credible that a repentant humour would induce him, for Richmond's benefit, to endanger himfelf, or diffolve the government he had recently constructed. A political character is feldom accessible to penitence, unless it be profitable. Refentment at Edward's offspring, had con-

nected him with Richard; from whom, as no cause of quarrel existed, ambition alone could detach him afterwards. His motives may be discovered from his conversations with Morton, an artful intermixture of truth and falsehood 42. Morton, a prisoner at Brecknock, remarking Buckingham's fecret difaffection, proposed that he should dethrone the tyrant Richard; and if averse to the cares and disquiet of a crown, bestow it on the princess Elizabeth, or reinstate the royal lineage of Lancaster. Buckingham replied, that at Gloucester, when informed of the murder of the princes, (a murder not then perpetrated,) he forfook the court with detestation and horror; and ruminating during his journey on the destruction of the tyrant, recollected for the first time that himself, the descendant and representative of John of Gaunt, possessed an indubitable title to the crown. An interview with Margaret Countess of Richmond, destroyed these visions, by reminding him that they were fprung from two brothers, Dukes of Somerfet, and lineal descendants of John of Gaunt; but that as her father was the elder brother, her fon's was therefore the preferable title. But he could not be ignorant that the Beauforts, dukes of Somerfet, though descended from John of Gaunt, were the produce of an adulterous connection with Catharine Swineford; and when ligitimated by parliament, were excluded expressly from fuccession to the crown. He must have remembered his own descent from Anne, daughter and heiress of Thomas of Woodstock, fon of Edward III., and younger brother of Edmond of Langley, and John of Gaunt, progenitors of the York and Lancastrian families; and recollected (for he bore the arms of Thomas of Woodstock) that fuch descent afforded a title inferior only to Richard's,

⁴² See More, and Hall and Grafton's continuation of this curious convertation: the particulars of which, as they were derived from Morton himfelf, ferve to elucidate much of the obscurity attending Richard's accession.

and superior to any pretentions of his or Richmond's, as the spurious descendants of John of Gaunt 43. The fact is, that Richmond never avowed his pretentions, till the field of Bofworth decided his right. Individually his power was unequal to a contest with Buckingham, whose Lancastrian title, however defective, was sufficient to conciliate the Lancastrian interest; and whose ambition, had his rebellion prospered, would have induced him affuredly to retain and wear, not to refign to Richmond, the crown he had conquered; and to fortify his doubtful title, by an union with the Yorkifts, the intermarriage of his fon with the Princess Elizabeth. Whatever were the fecret motives of Morton and others, his propinquity to the crown, and the probable iffue of his conduct if fuccefsful. indicates an ambition aspiring to royalty, and productive of rebellions, in which repentance had no share. The murder therefore of the young princes is not authenticated by his revolt, fince we cannot conclude from his conduct, that his motive was to avenge their death. On the contrary, a report propagated on the eve of a general infurrection, excites a suspicion that it was devised to render the infurrection popular, to justify the proposed degradation of Richard, and the transference of the crown to a different family.

But the report is confirmed by contemporary evidence, that of the chief partizans of York; who, persuaded of the murder, concurred with the Lancastrians in supporting Richmond, and promoting the union of the rival roses. The argument is specious, not satisfactory; for those enumerated as the principal Yorkists, were either Lancastrians, or connected by birth or affinity with Bucking.

⁴³ Sandford's Geneal. Hift. Dugdale's Baronage.

⁴⁴ Hume's Hift. vol. iii. p. 456. A ftrong proof of Hume's inattention to the minutiae of hiftory is, that those whom he enumerates as the principal Yorkists were all Lancastrians, the Stanleys excepted.

ham and Richmond. The Courtneys were Lancastrians, and stedfast adherents of Henry VI., the Earl of Devon was enriched by the forfeiture of the Duke of York; his fon was attainted by Edward, and afterwards flain, fighting for the Lancastrians, at the battle of Tewksbury; and his family supported the insurrection of Buckingham. The Talbots were Lancastrians, and obtained their share in the rich confifcations of the Duke of York; the Earl of Shrewsbury and Christopher his brother fell at Northampton; and Sir Gilbert Talbot, a furviving brother, brought a large accession of strength to the standard of Richmond. The Stanleys were properly Yorkifts; but Lord Stanley's marriage with Richmond's mother, which rendered his fidelity fuspicious, occasioned his subsequent defection from Richard. The Blounts were Yorkists; but Lord Mountjoy and Sir James 45 his brother, were connected both with Buckingham and Richmond; their mother was the dowager Duchels of Buckingham; Henry Stafford their uterine brother was the Countess of Richmond's fecond husband; and the execution of Buckingham their nephew, attached them necessarily to Richmond's interest. If the Berkleys were Yorkists, we discover in their accession to Buckingham's conspiracy. their diffatisfaction at the recent elevation of the Howards. descended with them from the daughters of Thomas first Duke of Norfolk, and Earl Marshal of England; but as their mother was the eldest daughter, the revival of these honours in the Howard family was probably refented as injurious to theirs 46. Bourchier's and Hungerford's fathers

45 Who betrayed the castle of Hams to Richmond.

on his fecond fon Richard Duke of York, whom he betrothed and intended to marry to the infant daughter and heires of Mowbrey, the last Duke. It was suggested, I find, by a learned prelate, in his correspondence with the late Dr. Henry, that Richard would not have offered, nor would Howard have accepted, the title, unless it was vacant; and as there was no forfeiture, there is reason to presume that

fathers were Lancastrians; Willoughby, Cheney, Dawbeny, Arundel, and others, were either foldiers of desperate fortune, or private gentlemen whose political connections no refearches can now discover. Sir Thomas St. Leger is marked as a partifan of the house of York, on account of his marriage with the Duchels of Exeter, Richard's fifter; but the Duchess died in the former. reign; and as her first husband was a devoted Lancastrian, we have no affurance that the second was a Yorkift. The conspiracy for which he suffered was concerted to refcue and reftore the princes, and its formation preceded the report of their death 47. Those partisans. whose defertion of Richard can be rendered a presumptive attestation of the murder, are therefore reduced to the Grays and Woodvilles, the queen's relations; and as these were originally Lancastrian families, I cannot discover that Richmond's accession was effected, as historians have imagined, by a previous coalition with the principal Yorkifts. 48

The queen's friends, whose attachment to the house of York depended solely on their alliance with Edward, projected, for the restitution of his children, shose infurrections to which Buckingham, Morton, and the Lancastrians acceded. The report of the murder dissolving their recent connection with the Yorkists, renewed their former attachment to Lancaster; and I must conclude

the title was vacated by the Duke of York's death. The argument is the less conclusive, as Howard's creation took place on the 28th June 1483, when the Duke of York was certainly not understood to be dead. The interests of a boy might have been disregarded, or the revival of the title in his person considered as irregular, injurious to the claims of the Howards, descendants of the first Duke. But the Duke of York, as far as history can ascertain, was certainly alive on the 8th of September following.

⁴⁷ See Dugdale's Baronage, under the names of the respective families enumerated in the text.

⁴⁸ In the historians of the period there is no trace of such a previous union of the Lancastrians and Yorkists.

that they acted on a firm perfuasion and belief of the fact, when they transferred their interest gratuitously to Richmond, concurred in his marriage with the Princess Elizabeth, and for his benefit perfifted in those infurrections, that were first concerted to rescue Edward V. from prison. Their evidence resolves, however, into mere opinion, their belief of a dark and fecret transaction, to the truth of which they had no certain access: it is diminished by the frequent fluctuations, and destroyed by the apparent contradiction of their subsequent conduct. The Queen, on affurance of fafety, forfook the fanctuary, and reforted with her daughter to Richard's court: his propofals for marriage proved fo acceptable to the princefs Elizabeth, that she seems to have languished with impatience for the nuptials 9; and the Marquis of Dorfet endeavoured, by the Queen his mother's directions, to escape from Richmond, by whom he was intercepted, and during the fubsequent invasion, detained prisoner at Paris. Either their former perfuasion was much altered, or the mother had forgotten or pardoned the murderer of her fons, and the daughter was defirous of embracing a hufband, polluted with the recent blood of her brothers. Adopting their conduct as the rule of evidence, we must conclude from Buckingham's infurrection, when their interest was certainly exerted for Richmond, that they were actuated then by the report of the murder, and their own internal conviction of its truth; but we must also conclude from the same rule, that Richard was afterwards enabled to establish his innocence, to convince the Queen tha ther children furvived, or at least that their death was casual, not accelerated by his interference. If he was ferious in his propofals to marry Elizabeth his intention was not to strengthen his title, (her illegitimacy

⁴⁹ Buck quotes a letter of hers to the Duke of Norfolk, preferved in the Earl of Arundel's library, and expressive of extreme impatience for the marriage.

precluded

precluded that,) but to frustrate any hostile connection with Richmond.

The circumstances now ascertained are, the existence of the princes on the eight of September, a conspiracy. for their restoration, to which Buckingham and the principal Lancastrians acceded, a report of their murder, and the concurrence and temporary resolution of their kindred to transfer the fuccession to a different family. Two contradictory conclusions are deducible: 1. That Richard, to counteract the object of an alarming conspiracy, extinguished the male iffue of Edward his brother: 2. That the report of the murder, originating with Buckingham and Morton and the chief Lancastrians, was calculated to deceive, to conciliate the infurgents to their private meafures; and that it afterwards paffed uncontradicted by Richard, as the probable means of uniting the divided adherents of York. Were the evidence to terminate here, the last conclusion would be properly rejected; the disappearance of the princes, succeeded by a report and belief of their murder, would constitute a satisfactory proof that their death was violent. But the evidence extends to a subsequent period; and as the re-appearance of one of the princes would render the murder of his brother extremely improbable, the conclusion must be fuspended till we ascertain the character of him who, personating the Duke of York, has in history been hitherto denominated Perkin Warbeck.

IV. It is fingular, and perhaps peculiar to Henry's fortune, that his fuccess was promoted, and his acquisition of the crown effected, by a persuasion of the death or murder of the young princes; and that his reign was disquieted afterwards, by the prevailing opinion of their having either escaped the cruelty, or survived by the clemency, of their unfortunate uncle. Cardinal Bourchier expressed his apprehension of the Queen's intention to

remove the youngest beyond the realm; and early in Richard's reign a conspiracy for conveying them both abroad was detected and punished 50. Another defign for the escape of one of their fifters, in difguise, from fanctuary, was discovered during the progress to York"; and scarcely was Henry established on his throne, when a report was diffused, and generally credited, that the sons of Edward IV. had been conveyed fecretly away, and were still alive, concealed by their obscurity in some distant region 52. Whether the rumour was coëval with Henry's reign, or propagated that Lambert Simnel might personate the Duke of York, the character assumed by that juvenile impostor was determined by a subsequent report of Warwick's murder, not, as historians have mifconceived, of his escape from the Tower. Surmises of fecret violence to state prisoners, were not peculiar to Richard's reign; and but for Lambert's imposture, that rendered the public exhibition of Warwick necessary, his death or existence might have remained as mysterious at present as that of his unfortunate cousins, concerning whom reports are fo various, and whose fate historians are fo folicitous to difcover. 53

On

50 More. Stowe, Ric. III. 51 Chron. Croyl.

by Hall and Grafton, from their tenderness to Henry, has strangely

escaped

[&]quot;The deaths and final fortunes of the two young princes have nevertheless fo far come in question, that some remained long in doubt whether they were in Richard's days destroyed or no." More. — In vulgus sama valeret, filios Edwardi regis, aliquo terrarum fecreto migrasse, atque ibi superstites esse." Pol. Virg. p. 569.—
"Neither wanted there even at this time" (Henry's accession) "fecret rumours and whisperings, which afterwards gathered strength, and turned to great trouble, that the two young sons of King Edward IV. or one of them, (which were said to be destroyed in the Tower,) were not indeed murdered, but were conveyed secretly away, and were yet living.—And all this time it was still whispered every where that at least one of the children was living." Bacon, p. 4. See Hall.

On the appearance of Lambert, when the Earl of Lincoln departed to folicit affiftance from the Duchefs of Burgundy, Henry, after much deliberation in council, feized the Queen-dowager's person, conficated her estates. and confined her for life in a folitary cloifter. The pretext was, her having departed from fanctuary, and entrusted her daughter to Richard's care; a false pretext, adopted obviously to conceal a more fecret, and in Henry's eyes a more criminal transaction. Either she connived with Lincoln in Lambert's imposture, or possessed some dangerous political fecret, dangerous to the future stability of Henry's government; and when the preceding report of her fon's escape is combined with the subsequent appearance of Warbeck, that she was imprisoned in confequence of fuch a report; estranged from all correspondence with the world, to prevent her testimony in the event of her fon's existence from transpiring; stript of her wealth, to intercept any fecret resources from him; is a conclusion more probable than this, that, convinced of the death of her fons, yet diffatisfied with Henry, the engaged in a conspiracy, and promoted an imposture, for the purpose of transferring the crown from the Queen her daughter, and Prince Arthur her grandfon, to Lincoln, Richard's nephew, formerly declared his prefumptive heir. Let historians, who ascribe such conduct to habitual intrigue and the defire of power, beware of indulging in wanton conjectures. If she had no son to succeed to the throne, she had no power to expect from the promotion of Richard's heir, or Warwick, Clarence's iffue, not less hateful to her than Lincoln. The report then

cheaped the notice of our recent historians, who have all supposed the imposture founded on the report of Warbeck's cheap; such imposture was superfluous if the cheape was true, and liable to immediate detection if his person remained in Henry's custody. We see that Henry was defamed in much the same manner as Richard; but who will assure me that, had Warwick never been exhibited, his execution would have been public, or that his murder would not have been attributed to Richard.

that occasioned her imprisonment, demonstrates the probability, as it discloses Henry's apprehensions, that one at least of her sons existed; and as it was preceded by repeated attempts for their rescue, it is to be verified or resuted by an investigation of Perkin Warbeck's pretensions and character.

Historical notices concerning this personage, are slight and unfatisfactory, transmitted either by Henry, or by writers who discover a rancorous prejudice against his rival. Warbeck's first appearance was in Ireland, whence he was invited by ambaffadors to France; and on the peace of Estaples, he repaired to Flanders, claimed, it is faid, and obtained the protection of the Duchess of Burgundy, was received as her nephew the Duke of York, the descendant of Edward IV. her brother. The imposture originated, as is generally afferted, in her inveterate hatred of the Lancastrian party; for the depression of which, she circulated rumours of her nephew's escape from the tyfanny of Richard her brother; and after a fearch for years, discovered a youth of obscure birth, qualified to personate the youngest of the princes, of the same age, handsome and elegant in his person and appearance, with a crafty head and bewitching address, so subtle and cunning, that it was impossible in conversation to detect his falsehood; such a wanderer, that it was difficult to trace his origin, or discover his adventures; an expert linguist, to whom the English was familiar as his vernacular language; a Jew by birth, yet so similar in every feature to him whom he perfonated, that the refemblance could only be folved by the supposition of his being an illegitimate descendant from the same father. This mercurial, the Duchess secretly retained at court, instructed him in her cabinet to assume the demeanor and state of a prince, without departing from a modelt fense of his own miffortunes; informed him of every circumstance relative to the character he was intended to personate; described minutely the persons and features of the King and Queen

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his pretended parents, their fon Prince Edward, their five daughters, and those who had formerly attended the Duke of York; devised a smooth and likely tale of his brother's death, and his own escape; and concluded her instructions by teaching him how to evade, when interrogated, fuch captious questions as might tend to detection. When properly tutored, and inspired by the Duchess with unbounded ambition, he was fent with an English lady 54 to Portugal, and afterwards emerged from obscurity in Ireland, affumed the character of the Duke of York, and attracted the notice, and acquired the esteem and friendship, of different princes. At Paris, an hundred English gentlemen, who reforted to him, were convinced of his birth, and embraced his interest; his behaviour was princely, and supported uniformly with such propriety, that all ranks, perfuaded of his title, regarded him as Richard Duke of York: the counterfeit was practifed fo long, that it became habitual: it deceived himfelf: from a liar, he became a believer, and was almost converted into the identical character which he was employed to exhibit55. Of this relation, our author justly observes, that it is too laboured and artificial to be strictly true; that particulars extremely improbable, and of a nature too fecret for the historian to discover, are afferted positively without proof; and that it is " more like a tale con-" trived to folve appearances, than like genuine history, " fupported by proper evidence 56."

Its purport is to discredit the public declarations of an aunt, on whose testimony the existence and identity of her nephew would otherwise be established; and its credit therefore depends on the character and probable motives of the Duchess of Burgundy, whether her character can

⁵⁴ Lady Brampton; yet her evidence was never produced.

⁵⁵ Bacon, p. 607. Credunt fimul qua fingunt, had belonged, I thought, to religious impostors.

⁵⁶ Supra, ch. i. fect. 1.

warrant the imputation, and what motives could fuggest the contrivance of fo vile an imposture. Margaret was the fifter of Richard, the widow of Charles the Hardy, the tutelage of whose grandchildren, the Flemings, ever jealous of their liberties, transferred, on the death of his daughter (the offspring of a former marriage), from Maximilian their father, to Margaret's care. Her execution of this maternal trust, as described by an historian partial to Henry, will explain her character. "Hos 66 liberos materno amplexa amore, mira charitate, nutriebat, accipiebat, fovebat, studiose que rebus domesticis " operam tribuebat, quæ ejusmodi officiis magnam apud Flandres fibi auctoritatem compararet 57." Such affectionate and prudent conduct indicates those mild and beneficent virtues, that conciliated the esteem and respect of the untractable Flemings, not that character addicted to intrigue and prone to mischief, which might be sufpected of dangerous and dark machinations. An imputation fo inconfistent with her general character, derives no prefumption from her former conduct. Lambert Simnel she never acknowledged, nor supported otherwise than by furnishing Lincoln her nephew, once the prefumptive heir of the English crown, with troops to render his pretensions effectual. Whatever was the secret object of that infurrection, the imposture was certainly concerted without her participation; her affistance was folicited by Lincoln alone, and granted, on every hypothesis, to support a nephews, not Lambert, a boy removeable at Lincoln's pleasure. But on Warbeck's appearance,

57 Polydore Virgil, p. 570.

⁵⁸ Either Lincoln, or Richard Duke of York, (Warwick then was fupposed to be murdered,) but most probably the latter. Lincoln, connected with the Plantagenets by the female line, found, when he employed Lambert to personate Warwick, that he could not claim in his own person; and the pageant could have been removed afterwards with a bad grace, unless by the superior right of the Duke of York.

when Lincoln had perished, and Warwick's life was at Henry's disposal, there was no prince of the house of York whose accession such an imposture could promote. Warbeck's reward, in the event of his fuccess, was the crown of England; and on the supposition of his imposture, Margaret, for the purpose of supplanting Henry, must have selected a vagabond of a detested race, to perfonate the heir, and maintain the honour, of her illustrious family, to acquire, and transmit to his own descendants, that crown which, in her opinion, was the exclusive patrimony of the house of York. Whatever were her prejudices or antipathy to Henry, the conduct imputed to her involves " fuch perverfenefs, wickednefs, and malice, " as is fcarcely credible 59;" more than that, its abfurdity would have defeated her own intentions. She hated Henry, because he depressed her family, and communicated no share of his splendor or power to her niece, his wife. Therefore she labours, by every detestable artifice, to transfer the crown from her own family, from her niece the descendant of the house of York, to the obscure fon of a converted Jew. Conclusions fo preposterous must be rejected, and Margaret's acknowledgment received as evidence of an unfufpicious nature, confirming the preceding report of her nephew's existence, and attesting his identity with Perkin Warbeck.

There is fome difficulty, perhaps, on the difappearance of the Duke of York at the age of nine, his re-appearance at manhood, and obscurity during the intermediate period. The difficulty is thus obviated: He was either conveyed from the Tower by the intervention of some of his mother's friends, or committed by Richard to the care of Margaret, to be educated abroad, in a manner correspondent to the mediocrity of his future fortune. On these suppositions, Margaret's court was the last place to which he could have sled for refuge while Richard was

alive, or where he could have obtained public protection when Richard was dead. Flanders then was a scene of distraction; its cities had revolted against Maximilian; the inhabitants were dependent on England for a lucrative commerce; and had Margaret produced her nephew in public, no protection could have been obtained from a feeble government, or expected from a people averse to every altercation, that might terminate in an interruption of their trade with England. The facility with which Henry, by a short suspension of commerce, procured the expulsion of Warbeck from Flanders, affords a fatisfactory reason for his obscurity during his early youth, if entrusted by Richard or others to Margaret's care. If conveyed abroad, as his manifesto seems to infinuate, by his mother's affiftance, he must have effected his escape during Richard's life, or after his death at the battle of Bosworth, when Brackenbury the lieutenant was flain, and before Willoughby with the unfortunate Warwick had arrived at the Tower. On the first supposition, a boy, entrusted probably to some faithful domestic, and too young to be proposed as a popular leader, had no friendly potentate to receive him on the Continent. Margaret of Burgundy might have restored him to Richard her brother; the courts of France and Brittany were pre-occupied by Richmond, who, as a Lancastrian, was hostile to every male of the house of York, and whose influence was such, that he detained the Marquis of Dorset at Paris in an honourable custody 60. Silence and concealment were therefore necessary; but if on the other, and to me the more probable, supposition, his escape was effected after his uncle's death, and during the flight or confusion of those officers to whom the Tower was entrusted, concealment and filence were still more requisite. His mother was in London, and must have been fensible, that when Henry, at the head of a victorious army, assumed the

crown, there was no refource but immediate flight, no protection but profound obscurity, to preserve her son from perpetual confinement. Assuredly, had Henry, who difregarded his fifter's pretensions, secured his person, Warwick's portion must have been his; and as they were involved in the same ignominious death, they must have shared for life in the same oblivious gloom of a dungeon. Whatever was the same oblivious gloom of a dungeon. Whatever was the same of his elder brother, whether he died in confinement, or escaped to the Continent, I will not presume that he perished by Richard's orders, when I find the existence of the youngest attested by the common report of the age, the public unsufpicious declarations of his aunt, and Henry's severity, otherwise unaccountable, to the Queen his mother.

It was incumbent on Henry, if desirous to vindicate his own title, to discredit the Duchess of Burgundy's evidence, and to afcertain in the most unequivocal manner, the supposed murder of the Duke of York, and the pretended origin of Perkin Warbeck. Either would have fufficed to detect the imposture; but Warbeck's identity with the Duke of York is, by a strange fatality, best authenticated by Henry's narrative of the obscure birth of the one, and his measures to discover the murder of the other. There were three circumstances in Warbeck's history, for which a particular explanation was requisite, -a visible and strong resemblance of the Duke of York, a perfect knowledge of the English language, and a plan projected by a foreign youth for dethroning a monarch, by personating a prince who had perished in his childhood. But of these the narrative adopted by historians, and the confession attributed to Warbeck, contain different contradictory folutions.

1. In the reign of Edward IV. a Flemish Jew, recently converted to the Christian persuasion, resided during a season in London, where his wife was delivered of a son, to whom, at his baptism, the king condescended to act as

fponsor or. Such a godson as Perkin, for a monarch whose name was Edward, is alone ridiculous; but the tale is calculated to explain that resemblance which could not be contested, by the surmise of a previous intrigue between Edward and Warbeck's mother. The tale, if true, was susceptible of proof; and as Henry's title to the crown was in question, it was incumbent on him to establish the fact by the testimony of those who had either witnessed Warwick's baptism, or remembered his father at Edward's court. But the name of his pretended father is uncertain;—Warbeck according to historical narrative; Osbeck according to the confession which informs us that his birthplace was Tourney, but contains no trace of a Messiah from the Jews to the English nation.

2. He was removed in his infancy to Tourney, as a refidence fufficient for the acquifition of the language might have involved Henry in the difficulty of proving his birth and early education in England 62. But his knowledge of English was confessedly perfect, acquired, according to Bacon, in Flanders, by frequenting the company of English merchants; as if perfection were attainable in any language from the cafual intercourse of a boy with foreigners. His confession is more explicit, and more contradictory. He was born at Tourney, from which his first excursion was to Antwerp, whither he was sent to acquire the Flemish, his native language; afterwards he lodged at a skinner's adjoining to the " house of the Eng-" lish nation;" and at last was placed by his friends in a merchant's fervice at Middleburgh, with whom he remained from Christmas to Easter, for the express purpose of learning the language. The merchant's name was John Strew; the language he taught was undoubtedly English: yet in Ireland, where Warbeck was mistaken for a Plantagenet, the inhabitants constrained him, against

his inclination, to acquire that language. Henry, folicitous to account for the purity of his accent, infinuated that his knowledge of English, which commenced from his vicinity at Antwerp to the English factory, was completed during his stay at Middleburgh; yet distatisfied with this folution, Henry fends him at last to Ireland, to be instructed by force in the English language. The Duke of York, if attended after his escape from the Tower by an English domestic, would retain the purity, and cultivate the propriety, of his vernacular language; but that correct pronunciation, which to him was natural, could be communicated to Warbeck, neither by an intercourse abroad with the English, nor by a short and precarious residence among the Irish 63. His pretensions, announced on his arrival in Ireland, must have been authenticated by a previous acquaintance with the language; an acquaintance unaccountable, unless on the supposition of his being the identical Duke of York.

3. That a foreigner, a youth of obscure birth, should devise or execute such an imposture, assume the name, and support the character of a prince, whose person was unknown to him, indulge the preposterous ambition of supplanting a powerful and vigilant monarch, and in the character of their native prince, of usurping the throne of a nation, to which he was an absolute stranger, were contradictions which Henry was obliged to reconcile, by assertions the imposture to Margaret's secret instigation and contrivance. She discovered in Warbeck a resemblance of her nephew, tutored him to personate that prince, and, to provide for the exigencies of his surre

⁶³ It is eafy to estimate the possibility of the fact; the acquisition of languages is now facilitated by grammars and dictionaries. Let us consider then within what determinate number of years we ourselves, residing in England, could acquire the Dutch or Flemish in perfection; and if in the course of a life, neither study, nor the converse of natives, could accomplish that, let us again consider what residence abroad would be necessary, and we will discover the impossibility of Perkin's acquiring English abroad or in Ireland.

character, stored his mind with instructions and anecdotes concerning his family. Such a character, with the best instructions, was furely an arduous attempt for a foreigner. In the character of princes numerous impostors have deceived the world, but history furnishes no example of an impostor personating a foreign prince, to impose himself as a native on a foreign nation. The name of the unfortunate Warwick was adopted twice, but by English impostures. In the next century the false Demetrius, whose history has some resemblance to Warbeck's, obtained for a short period the Russian empire; but Demetrius, whatever was his birth, was a native of the country he aspired to govern 64; and in our own memory, Pugalfcheff and others, who fuccessively assumed the name of their murdered fovereign, were Russians, whose language and manners coincided with the character they endeavoured to personate. Such a residence abroad, as might vitiate the pronunciation, and alter the manners, of the Duke of York, would certainly facilitate the attempt to fupport his character; but as Warbeck's pronunciation was confessedly perfect, and his behaviour consistent, we may estimate, with sufficient precision, the obstructions to be furmounted by a foreign impostor. Suppose then that the tragedy of Richard the Third were exhibited at Paris, and a French youth, instructed by an English actor to perform the part of the Duke of York; his erroneous pronunciation and defective utterance, the repugnance of his action and manners to those peculiar to the English nation, his inability to preferve or attain to propriety for a fingle scene, would convince us that Warbeck, a foreigner, could not possibly be capacitated by Margaret's

⁶⁴ Demetrius is treated uniformly as an impostor by Russian historians, but foreigners, less prejudiced, are apt to recognize his title on the authority of a mother's public acknowledgment, never publicly disowned or retracted. He was supposed to have been murdered in his infancy, but re-appeared, attesting his escape, at the age of manhood.—Vide Cox's Travels.

instructions, for the performance of the same character. with unexampled confiftency, during his life. But Margaret was herfelf incapable of informing this actor; her marriage and departure from England preceded the birth of the Duke of York, nor could she discover his resemblance in Perkin, describe his character, the features and appearance of his brothers and fifters, (none of whom the had ever beheld,) nor instruct her pupil in the daily incidents. the companions and purfuits of his juvenile years, at a court in which, after her marriage, she had never refided 65. The historical narrative is therefore false; but the confession published as Warbeck's disclaims it in a manner that exculpates Margaret and discredits itself. It was in Ireland, according to the confession, when Warbeck appeared at Cork dreffed in some filk clothes of his master, that he was first mistaken for a Plantagenet, the fon of Clarence; and when he denied it on oath, Water formerly the mayor, and Poytron an Englishman, repaired to him privately, maintained that he was a natural fon of the late King Richard, affured him of adequate protection and fuccour, and advise him to assume that character without being intimidated by Henry's power. "And fo," fays the confession, "against my will they " forced me to learn English, and taught me what I " should do and fay; and after this they called me Duke " of York, fecond fon of King Edward IV., because King "Richard's baftard fon was in the hands of the King of " England." Thus the imposture, concerted in Flanders with fuch artful preparation, by the Duchess of Burgundy, disappears from the canvas, and the whole resolves into an idle tale of a servant mistaken by the Irish for a prince. (not from personal resemblance, but because he was

⁶⁵ His information has also been attributed to Trion, formerly Henry's French secretary, seduced from his service, and dispatched with Lucas to Warbeck in Ireland; but a Frenchman retained for a period as a clerk by Henry, could communicate sew particulars, and none of the domestic or secret transactions of a former reign.

dreffed in his mafter's clothes,) and a plan for dethroning the King of England, constructed on such a mistake, by the mayor of Cork. Such abfurd falsehood demonstrates that the confession was either extorted by torture, or fabricated after the execution of Warbeck. It was unknown to Fabian and Polydore Virgil, both contemporaries 66; but historians of a subsequent period, who adopted the narrative of the latter, with fuch deviations as their prejudice fuggested, have superadded to those indignities, and to that dishonourable death to which Warbeck was exposed, a public confession of his birth and parentage, his adventures and frauds, read aloud, they assure us, first when he was fet in the stocks at Cheapside, and again before his execution at Tyburn. That the confession was fictitious, is certain from its falsehood; for Warbeck landed in Ireland, not to be trained to imposture, but to affert his pretentions, and to folicit affiftance from the potent Earls of Kildare and Defmond 67. That it was fabricated by Henry, is more than probable; but to what shall we attribute his suppression of Margaret's share in the imposture? Not to any regard for Margaret, whose character Warham, his ambaffador in Flanders, had loaded publicly with reproach and abuse68. Henry, to render the

67 His letters to these noblemen were supposed to have been extant in Sir James Ware's time.—Ware's Annals of Ireland, 1492.

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^{**}Solydore Virgil was fent by the Pope to England to collect the papal tribute about the year 1500, and continued there till the Reformation commenced. His history, as he informs us in a dedication to his brother, of his book De Inventoribus Rerum, was begun in 1505 at Henry's request, and finished in twelve years. His information was certainly derived from Henry; and with respect to Warbeck's execution in 1499, must be genuine: but he either knew not, or regarded the confession as spurious, when he omits it in his account of Warbeck's being set in the stocks, and afterwards hanged at Tyburn; p. 608.—See Fabian also.

^{69 &}quot; Dr. Warham, in the latter end of his oration, a little rebuked the lady Margaret, and hit her on the thumbs, faying, that the now in her old age, and within few years, had produced and brought forth two detestable monsters, that is to fay, Lambert and Perkin Warbeck; and being conceived of these great babes, not in eight

the imposture probable, had circulated a story which he could not authenticate, and in the confession which he published, durst not affert. The accusation of Margaret would have rendered a proof of the imposture necessary, and might have provoked her to publish, in her own vindication, incontestible evidence of Warbeck's identity with the Duke of York. The repugnance between the confession and the historical narrative, (both of which originated with Henry,) must be ascribed to the impossibility of supporting either; and we must conclude that Henry was unable, either to afcertain the pretended birth of his rival, or to remove the improbability of a foreigner, a youth of obscure condition, aspiring to his crown, and projecting to dethrone him, by affuming the character of a prince destroyed in his early youth, whose name was almost forgotten in the world. His spies were certified, it is said, of Warbeck's parentage by " many honest persons in "Tourney;" but that testimony might have been obtained by his ambaffador in a more unexceptionable and public manner, when Warbeck was expelled by his influence from Flanders. That testimony was necessary to vindicate his title; but his inability to produce it, affures us that he had made no real discovery of Warbeck's origin, to disprove his identity with the Duke of York.

Nor is their identity refuted by Henry's pretended difcovery of the previous murder of the Duke of York. It is justly observed, that on Henry's accession, when

[&]quot;or nine months, but on the one hundred and eightieth month, for both these were at the least fifteen years of age before she could be brought to bed of them; and when they were newly crept out of her womb, they were no infants, nor sucking children, but lusty younglings, and of age sufficient to bid battle to kings." Grafton, p. 901.—The historian observes, that although Margaret was vexed at being bit on the thumbs, Perkin was more disconcerted at the detection of his fraud in Warham's oration. Thus Henry accused Margaret publicly of a share in the imposture, and afterwards retracted the accusation in the confession which he fabricated. Can that be ascribed to decorum?

⁶⁹ Historical Doubts.

Richard and his numerous adherents were attainted, the passions of the people, inflamed and agitated, should have been productive of an immediate investigation of the murder. No inquiry was instituted however, not till Henry (as Bacon informs us) imprisoned, on Warbeck's appearance, Dighton and Tyrell, the furviving affaffins, and obtaining ample confessions of the murder, released the one "who spake best for his interest," but detained the other, whom he afterwards beheaded for a different crime. The purport, according to Bacon, of these confessions, was discovered only by public report; for Henry made no use of them in his subsequent declarations. Nor could he, for the confessions had not then an existence. Sir James Tyrell at that time enjoyed his confidence, if not his esteem. He had obtained from Henry the command of Guifnes; and after Warbeck's appearance and reception at Paris, was appointed one of the commissioners to conclude the treaty of Estaples with the French 70. He was not imprisoned till ten years afterwards; when, on Suffolk's flight in 1502, he was accused of treason, attainted and beheaded. His confession must be postponed to that period; as More informs us, that, " when " in the Tower for treason committed against Henry, he " and Dighton confessed the murder"." Henry's previous measures to ascertain the murder, originated therefore in the historian's invention; and as Tyrell's crime was a confederacy with Suffolk, no reliance can be placed on a rumoured confession, never published, but calculated to afperfe the character, and vindicate the execution of a foldier the victim of a tyrant's fuspicions. Warbeck's pretensions required an immediate proof of the murder; but no discovery was made, nor inquiry instituted, till

7º Hall, p. 18. 55. Rym. Fæd. vol. xii. p. 481.

⁷¹ Warbeck, who appeared in 1492, was executed in 1499. Fabian mentions Sir James Tyrell's imprisonment and execution on Suffolk's account in 1502; not a word of his confession or imprisonment formerly.

Warbeck's death; when a confession, certainly sicitious, was fastened on a person already condemned for a different crime.

Admitting then that Henry attempted neither to difcover the murder, nor to establish the pretended obscurity of Warbeck's origin, that his competitor's pretenfions derive additional confirmation from his failure, there was another more obvious detection of which the imposture was fusceptible, an absolute criterion to determine its truth. Personal identity, at different periods, derives its fole proof from the opinion of friends, and acknowledgments of kindred; and Margaret's attestation of her nephew's identity might have been counteracted, if false, by the more authoritative declarations of nearer relatives. The mother must have remembered her fon, and the fifters their brother, whom they had formerly endeavoured to preferve in fanctuary, and the lost object of their fond regret, no lapfe of time could efface from their memory. Manhood might expand, but it could not extirpate his youthful features; or if these were altered, a thousand incidents still remained,—the particulars of the night in which they took refuge in fanctuary, their diftresses, dangers, and mutual endearments, their last separation and folemn farewel, the recollection of a fifter's tears and a mother's bleffing, all remained to determine his filial and fraternal claims. The declarations of the Queen-dowager, of the Queen, or of her fifters, would have decided his character; and their denial of his pretenfions would have disabused the nation, and filenced for ever the sceptical voice of inquiry. " But Warbeck "never was confronted with them: they were never "afked, Is this your fon? is this your brother 72?" Their verdict admitted of no appeal; but they might have recognised in Warbeck, the youth they had fondly cherished in sanctuary, and the motions of nature might

have difregarded the feeble injunctions of a tyrant. This was an obvious mode of detection, far preferable to the reports of spies, or a spurious confession; but the proof which Henry withheld or avoided, operates decidedly in Warbeck's favour, whose identity, thus established by the direct or prefumptive evidence of his nearest kindred, is farther attested by his father's friends, Stanley, Fitzwalter, and others, who finally fealed their conviction with their blood. Their information, it is true, was derivative, not personal; yet its certainty may be estimated by the conviction it excited, fuch as exposed their lives to the rigour, and their fortunes to the rapacity, of a jealous tyrant. Their testimony might be corroborated, if necessary, by that of different contemporary princes; nor can we attribute to a fmooth and plaufible tale the reception Warbeck experienced from James IV., or believe that, without credentials or proofs of his birth, he obtained the cordial support of that monarch, and a princess his near relation in marriage. But the belief and declarations of friends and kindred, the opinion of the most respectable personages that diftinguished the period, Henry's inability to discover the murder, or detect the imposture, constitute fuch evidence as can only be impaired or confirmed by those probable, or oftensible motives, with which Richard and Henry were respectively actuated. Acquitted of treason, usurpation, and treachery, and of the murders formerly imputed to his youth, Richard's character affumes a milder hue, and his supposed cruelty to Edward's, feems irreconcileable with his tenderness to Clarence's issue, as his accession, founded on the incapacity of both, rendered either equally formidable; and the attainder of the one might have been reverfed as easily, as the illegitimacy of the other had been declared by parliament. No adequate motive could stimulate to a murder which neither strengthened his title, nor during Warwick's furvivance, encreased his security; and the conclusion deducible

cible from the disappearance of his nephews, and the report of their murder, is removed by the fubfequent report of their existence, and the re-appearance of the youngest, whose identity, which his friends and kindred attested, his implacable enemy was unable to discredit. Henry's apprehensions of their appearance, are discovered by his fevere and unmerited treatment of the queendowager, his prefervation of Lambert as a remedy against future enchantments of a fimilar nature, his regret that Lincoln's death intercepted the knowledge of the bottom of bis danger 73; and his fystematical depression of the Yorkists must be attributed, after his marriage with Elizabeth, not to a foolish and incurable prejudice, but to a persuasion that the existence of one of their princes rendered it dangerous to entrust them with power. But the reason affigned by Henry for the execution of Warwick, vacuam domum scelestis nuptiis facere, discloses his secret conviction of Warbeck's descent from the house of York. At the instigation of Ferdinand, who refused his daughter while the male line of Plantagenet existed, Warwick was removed as an obstruction to Prince Arthur's approaching marriage 74. His conspiracy with Warbeck was therefore fictitious, or rather, as was understood at the period, a fnare prepared for their mutual destruction; but as Warbeck, if an impostor, was no obstacle to Arthur's nuptials, Henry, whose policy spared Lambert, stooped confessedly to a detestable artifice, in order to terminate his own or Ferdinand's fears, by the extinction of the two furviving princes of the race of Plantagenet.

That Perkin Warbeck was a genuine Plantagenet, that Richard was no usurper, nor a tyrant stained with the blood of his kinsmen, are conclusions of which the reception can only be obstructed by the difficulty of discarding our ancient historians. Their credit, however, is now diminished; more information is traced to Morton, than

78 Bacon.

74 Thid.

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whom there was none more interested in traducing his recent, deferted fovereign; Polydore Virgil, a courtly writer, composed his history at Henry's request; and when fucceeding chroniclers transcribed the one, and improved on the other, we may be affured that, during the Tudor dynasty, literature possessed no curiosity to examine, nor spirit to vindicate, an obscure and dangerous historical truth. Would historians, afraid to intimate the defect inherent in Henry's title, express the slightest recognition of his rivals, or fuggest a marriage that rendered himself an usurper, his wife a bastard, and the royal issue of England's roses, doubly illegitimate, destitute of every hereditary or legal claim 75? Would historians, whose rancour has branded Richard with every perfonal deformity and moral turpitude, transfer to Henry the imputation of murdering, in Warbeck, the true Plantagenet, to fecure an equivocal right to the crown? The fame causes operated after the accession of the Stuarts, whose divine or hereditary right, derived from Henry's daughter, would have been impaired by whatever tended to Richard's vindication; and Buck, the first who afferted his innocence, felt the necessity of procuring a new title for the reigning family, in the descent of James from the Saxon monarch 76. Bacon's history might have been composed from materials that are now lost; an apologetical history, calculated to establish his master's despotical principles, and display their milder exercise, by the fevere precedent of a former reign; but when the historian records as real what he conceived requifite, who can difcriminate facts from the produce of invention? The inquisition concerning the murder of the princes, however

⁷⁶ From Margaret, Edgar Atheling's fifter, married to Malcolm Canmore.

^{75 &}quot;A bastard branch of Lancaster, matched with a bastard of "York, were obtruded on the nation as the right heirs of the crown; "and as far as two negatives make an affirmative, they were so."—Historic Doubts, p. 40.

requifite, was not instituted; and Warbeck's manifesto was perverted, either capriciously, or to countenance the purport of a wretched speech. That manifesto contains no explanation of his escape from the Tower, nor was it prudent to expose his fecret deliverers to Henry's refentment; but his supposed oration to the Scottish court (a fiction of Grafton's, embellished by Bacon) will not perfuade us that the fmooth and likely tale of his deliverance was abfurd and improbable; that his life, according to his own account, was spared by the compassion, and his escape effected by the connivance and aid, of his brother's murderers 77. But to those who, in estimating the voice of history, take no computation of the character of historians, timid or venal, subservient to the times, or obsequious to power, let me suggest an illustration that may render the prefent differtation not entirely barren of moral instruction. The fate of Richard's nephews, and the participation of the Scottish Mary in her husband's murder, constitute two problematical questions in British story, exemplified in the recent annals of Europe, by crimes of a more unequivocal and detestable die. Richard died like a foldier, but his memory has been perfecuted with unmerited hatred; and the beautiful and accomplished Mary, expelled from her throne and paternal kingdom, bewailed her misfortunes in a long captivity, and expiated her imputed guilt with her blood. The prefent generation has beheld a princess murder her husband and usurp his throne, and with despotic impunity rule an empire to which she was an alien. We have seen usurpation recognized as legal, parricide and regicide approved as glorious, by the monarchs of Europe, who, instead of confederating to vindicate fovereignty thus outraged, folicit her alliance,

⁷⁷ A fmooth and likely tale indeed! It is observable that the proclamation, the only genuine evidence derived from Warbeck of his pretensions or character, neither gives countenance to the absurdity supposed to attend his escape, nor accuses Richard of a single crime: yet Bacon has given it such an implied meaning.

and fue for her friendship; by those monarchs, who, if a gallant nation, re-afferting its freedom, interpole an intermediate power between the prince and his people, are alarmed for their own indefeafible fupremacy, and eager, by the conspiracy of their flagitious arms, to reduce that state to its pristine servitude. Two observations are deducible from an example, the dishonour, not the detestation, of Europe: The one is, that the virtues and the vices of the human species are, in different periods, nearly balanced; that if three centuries of progressive refinement have improved the manners and repressed the vices, they have also debased and degraded the virtues of the moderns; fupplanted that indignation which purfued the supposed guilt of a Richard and a Mary, and instructed nations, at least their rulers, to sympathize with the fuccessful crimes of a female usurper, not to commiserate the wrongs of her murdered husband. The other obfervation is, that under her despotism his fate will be converted by the difcreet historian into a natural demise; and if her fuccessors are interested in her meretricious virtues, the falsehood will be propagated by future historians, till the time arrive when the crime itself shall become problematical, and the inquirer, who reads in foreign authors the decease of the prince, will not credit the imputation of a murder, of which the annals of his country contain no trace. But when the just imputation of fuch atrocity is, in this enlightened period, suppressed by power, or averted, even among foreigners 78, by its splendor, who will tell me that, during five reigns, and a long century, of Tudor domination, historians would venture, by the fuggestion of Richard's title, to pronounce his fuccessors a race of usurpers, or by a surmise of his innocence, to establish their right on the murder of his

⁷⁸ See in Coxe's Travels (but I forget the passage, the personage, the period of time, or the particular region,) a curious instance of such a decease.

nephew, the Duke of York? The Stuarts are accused, and perhaps with truth, of obliterating the evidence of Mary's guilt; and it is not presumable that a document of Richard's innocence, or his nephew's existence, would survive the suppression of the monasteries, and escape the destructive vigilance of either Henry. But whether the solicitude of Mary's descendants has redeemed her innocence, Richard's must be recognized, when of numerous accusations, no crime has been substantiated by a race of sovereigns hostile to his memory, nor scrupulous either in the abuse of power, or the perversion of truth.

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A STATE OF THE PARTY OF THE PAR

NUMBER IV.

[Ex originali in Bibl. Thomæ Aftlei, arm.]

Recepta Scaccarij. Declaracio fact. metuendiffimo domino nostro regi nunc Henrico Octavo per Johannem Cutte militem fubthef. Anglie tam de feodis & annuitatibus diversarum perfonarum folut. ad receptam Scaccarij illustrissimi principis famofe memorie domini Henrici nuper regis Anglie Septimi quam de omnibus & fingulis denariorum fummis pro quibuscumque alijs causis per mandatum dicti nuper regis ad receptam predictam folut. & affignat. pro uno anno integro finit. ad festum sancti Michaelis Archangeli anno regni serenissime majestatis predict. nuper regis 24to. ut in consequentibus particulis plenius apparent; videlicet,

Tempore nuper regis Henrici Septimi.

Dominis, militibus, armigeris, & diversis alijs personis.

OHANNI comiti Oxon. constabular. Tur-		s.	
ris regis London. de feod. suo, per annum	100	0	0
Willelmo domino. Conyers — De hereditate			
fua, per annum	20	.0	0
Thome domino Dacre—Locumtenent. West-			
march. versus Scociam, per annum	153	6	8
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march. versus Sociam, per annum -	114 E	13	4
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Edwardo Ratcliff mil. 7 Locumtenent. Mi-	£.	5.	d.
Rogero Fenwyk arm. Scociam per annum Jacobo Strangwais mil.—De hereditate fua,	114	13	4
Thome Lovell mil. — Custod. castri regis	20	0	0
Nott. de feodo fuo, per annum Thome Brandon mil. — De annuitate fua,		13	4
er annum and - man de l'acceptant de	40		©
per annum Edwardo Wyngefeld mil. — De annuitate			,
fua, per annum Willelmo Vampage mil. —De annuitate fua,			
per annum Rowlando Vylevile mil.— De annuitate fua,	33		
Johanni Carewe mil. — De annuitate sua,	20		
matheo Baker arm. — De annuitate sua, per	33		
Antonio Fetyplace arm. — De annuitate sua,	33		
Thome Parre arm. — De annuitate fua, per annum			
Ricardo Hastyngs arm. — De annuitate sua,	00		
Edmundo Duddely arm. — De annuitate fua, per annum			
Henrico Wyatte arm. — Clerico jocalium do- mini regis, de annuitate sua, per annum	13		8
Petro Shampayn arm. — De annuitate fua, per annum	20		
Roberto Knollys arm. — De annuitate sua, per annum	13	1999	0
Thome Neville arm. — De annuitate fua, per annum			0
Johanni Heron — Rangeatori regis infra fo- restam de Waltham, per annum		2	6
Hugoni Denys — Virgebajulo infra castrum	18		0
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	£.	5.	d.
Johanni de Roye — De annuitate sua, per ann.	26	13	4
Edwardo Chefeman - Coferario hospicij regis			
	300	0	0
Andree Wyndefore mil Clerico magne	-		
garderobe regis de appunctuac. per annum	200	0	0
Johanni Meawtys - Secretario domini regis	3		
in lingua Gallica, de annuitate sua, per			
	40	0	-
Roberto Rydon - Clerico confilij domini	40		-
regis de annuitate fua, per annum	26	13	
Ricardo Dycons — Custod. Brun. domini	20	13	4
regis in communi banco, de annuitate sua,	,	-	
per annum Willelmo Smyth—Custod. +corum & al. har-	0	13.	4
Willelmo Smyth—Cultod. †corum & al. har-			
nec. regis infra Turrim London. de annui-	3770		
tate fua, per annum	18	5	0
Roberto Hasilrigge — Custod. garderobe regis			
infra palacium Westm. de feodo suo, per			
annum where the second of the	12	3	4
Petro Narbone - Barbitonfori domini regis,			
de annuitate fua, per annum	13	6	8
Ricardo Gybson & alijs lusoribus domini regis.	1		
— De annuitate fua, per annum	12	6	8
Henrico Glasebury & alijs ministrallis domi-	-3	1111	111
ni regis — De annuitate sua, per annum	52	6	8
Garcionibus & pagettis camere domini regis	23		
de reg. inter se erga festum natalis Do-			
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Willelmo Cornyshe - Magistro puerorum			
capelle regis, de annuitate fua, per annum,			
pro excubicione eorundem puerorum	20	13	4
Radulpho Jenette - Custod. lectorum & ar-			
mature domini regis infra castrum de			
Wyndefore, de feodo suo, per annum	13	13	9
Ricardo Gybson - Portatori magne garde-			
robe regis in civitate London. per annum	6.	1	8
Antonio Spynell — De annuitate fua, per ann.	20	0	0.
Johanni de Pounde - Armurario regis de	113 .		110
annuitate fua, per annum	20	0	0
Ricardo Smyth - Custod. gardini regis infra	-07-		
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	Diversis	personis ecclesiasticis.
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		do fuo, per annum 31
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nuitate fua, per annum	16.	13	4
Fratribus minoribus Cantebrig. — De annui-			
tate fua, per annum	16	13	4
Fratribus predicatoribus in civitate London			
— De annuitate sua, per annum	20	0	0
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fancti Stephani, de annuitate sua, per ann.	I	0	0
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diem, per annum	12	3	4
Ricardo Smythe - Valetto ordinacionum re-			
gis, de feodo fuo, ad 6d. per diem, per ann.	9	2	6
Thome Greves - Vibrellatori, de feodo fuo,			
ad 6d. per diem, per annum	9	2	6
Ricardo Fawconer - Vibrellatori, de feodo	. ,		
fuo, ad 6d. per diem, per annum -	9	2	6
Eidem Ricardo - Vibrellatori, de feodo fuo,			
ad 6d. per diem, pro vadijs unius hominis	9	2	6
Rogero Anglois - Vibrellatori, de feodo fuo,			77
ad 6d. per diem, per annum	9	2	6
Roberto Fyssher - Vibrellatori, de feodo fuo,			
ad 6d. per diem, per annum	9	2	6
Blasio Billarde - Vibrellatori, de feodo suo,			
ad 6d. per diem, per annum.	9	2	6
Winardo Godfrey — Vibrellatori, de feodo			
fuo, ad 6d. per diem, per annum	9	2	6
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Henrico Cromer — Vibrellatori, de feodo fuo,	£.	s.	d.
ad 6d. per diem, per annum Pais Reynold — Vibrellatori, de feodo fuo,	9	2	6
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fuo, ad 6d. per diem, per annum - Johanni Wystowe — Vibrellatori, de feodo	9	2	6
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Thome duci Norff. — Domino thefaurario Anglie, de feodo fuo, per annum Willama Hada milita Contali harani in	365	0	0
Willelmo Hody milit. — Capitali baroni in Scaccario, de feodo fuo, per annum Bartho. Westeby—Secundar. baroni in Scac-	100	0	0
cario, de feodo fuo, per annum - Willelmo Bollyng. — Tercio baroni in Scac-	46	13	4
cario, de feodo fuo, per annum - Johanni Aleyn — 4to baroni in Scaccario,	46	13	4
de feodo fuo, per annum - Thome Lovell milit. — Cancellar. regis in	46	13	4
Scaccario, de feodo fuo, per annum Roberto Blagge — Remem. ex parte regis in	26	13	4
Scaccario, de feodo fuo, per annum - Edmundo Denny — Remem. ex parte the-	55	17	4
faur. regis in Scaccario, de feodo fuo, per annum Thome Darnalle — Clerico magni rotuli in	64	2	6
Sacccario, de feodo fuo, per annum	47	19	7
Riegnaldo Fillole — Contra rotulatori magni rotuli in Sacccario, de feodo fuo, per annum Quinque auditoribus in Scaccario, cuilibet	13	14	7
eorum ad 10l. per annum, in toto per ann. Edmundo Wylley — Oppositori forinseco in	50	0	0
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Thome Sacheverell — Summonitori in Scac-			
cario, de feodo fuo, per annum	4	0	0
Willelmo Fermer—Clerico ad tall. jungend.			
in Scaccario, de feodo fuo, per annum	5	0	0
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Ricardo Barley — De feodo suo, per annum	6	0	0
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Willelmo Gilbert — Portatori bage cum ro-	5	0	0
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predictam per mandatum dicti il- lustrissimi nuper regis pro expensis		١,	
operacionum fuarum per tempus			
fupradictum	333	6	8
Summa totalis omnium & fin-	333	0	a
gulorum folucionum & affig-			
nacionum predict. per illuf-			
trissimum principem famose	•		
memorie dominum Henricum	12		
nuper regem Anglie Septi-			
mum pro diversis & separa-			
libus causis diversis personis			
conc. a festo sancti Michis			
Archangeli anno regniegregie			
fue majestatis 23to usque			
festum fancti Michis Archi.		Jan.	
proxime fequentem anno			
24to. ejusdem nuper regis pro uno anno integro - £2	2 409		QI
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NUMBER V.

Extracts from a MS. Book in the Remembrancer's Office, almost every Page signed by K. Henry VII.

I 3th Hen. VII.

TEM, to a woman for three apples, 12d.

Item, for two pair of bellows, 10d.

Item, for the King's loffe at tenis, 12d.

Item, for loffe of balls there, 3d.

N. B. The King's Sunday's offering feems

constantly to have been, 6s. 8d.

To the preacher of the day, 2os.

Item, for three fackbuthes wages, 6 li.

Item, for three stryngmynstrels wages, 5 li.

Item, for offering St. George's day, 3os.

John Send. nonick Rebeck, 4os. per month.

Item, for the feryboate of Rochester, 53s. 4d.

Lath Hen. VII.

Item, a rewarde given for apples by Thomas Foteman homeward, 20d.

Item, to a strange taberer, in reward, 66s. 8d. Item, to a strange tumbler, in reward, 20s. Item, for heling of a seke maid, 6s. 8d.—

N.B. This charge occurs frequently, and was perhaps the piece of gold given by the King in touching for the evil. — Q. If there was any fuch piece of coin?

20th July. Item, to the mayor of Rochester towards the bridge there, 100s.

Item, for a stryngmynstrell for one moneth's wages of August last passed, 158.

Item, for finding three hares, 6s. 8d. — N. B.
This occurs frequently.

Item, to a piper at Huntingdon, 2s.

Item, for apples prefented by a woman, 4d.

Item, for breaking of hegges at Wiscombe, 2od.

Item, to my Lord Prince's organ-player for a qrt.

wages ending at Michell., 10s.

Item, for three dozen of leder gloves, 128.

Item, to the yeoman of the King's chamber for their months wages of November last

passed, 671. 8s. 8d.

Item, for the wages of the feke yeomen, 60s. Item, to a tumbuler at my Lord Bathe's, 208. Item, to the pleyers of London, in reward, 10s. Item, to the tabouretts and a tumbuler, 20s. Item, to my Lord Dudley's fervant for bringing

up a money-maker, 13s. 4d.

Item, to a Scotch fole, in reward, 13s. 4d. Item, to Sir Thomas Brandon for a horse, 4l.

Item, for another horse, 41.

Item, for a third horse, 66s. 8d. Item, to a Ducheman for a cage, 41.

Item, to Master Barnard the blind poete, 1008. To William Est for digging of the conduyt at

Wodestock, p lis. 201.

To the abbot of Reading for lede bought for Wodestock, 161.

For the carriage of the same, 18s.

Item, to Jakes Haute for the conduyt at Wodestock upon a bill, 101. 128. 10d.

Item, to a man and woman for strawburyes, 8s. 4d.

Item, to the Bishop of Bangor's cheeses at Lantony, 6s. 8d. - N. B. This frequently.

Item, for a woman for a red roffe, 2s.

For the hyre of a cart from London to Wodestock, ros.

Extracts from a MS. in the Remembrancer's Office.

oth Hen. VII.

Item, to Robert Forst for appaules and cakes, 6s. 8d.

Item, to Cart for writing of a booke, 6s. 8d. Item, to one that presented two cakes and a cheese, 138. 4d.

Item, to Sir Robert Curson's servent for an horse, 40s.

Item, to Danyell riding to Shene and Thiftleworth, 2s.

Item,

Item, for a pair of trufsling cofres boughte, 10s.
10th Dec. Item, to a fellow with a berde, a fpye, in reward, 20s.

Item, to two monkes, fpeyes, in reward, 40s. Item, payed for two pleyes in the hall, 26s. 8d. Item, to the King's pleyers, for a rewarde, 100s. Item, to him that brought the pnosticacon, 6s. 8d.

Item, to the King to play at cardes, 100s.

Item, to John Ibye, a fpye, in reward, 13s. 4d. Item, to one who brought the King a lyon, 53s. 4d.

Item, to a fpye that dwelleth in the west countrye, 20s.

For the King at tables, chefs, glaffes, &c. 56s. 8d.

Item, to the players that begged by the way, 6s. 8d.

Item, to a littell feloo of Shaftesburye, 20s. Item, to Pechie the fole, in rewarde, 6s. 8d.

Item, lost to my Lord Morging at buttes, 6s. 3d. Item, to Ashbyby for writing of a boke, 3s. 4d.

8th June. Item, to Sir Edward Boroughe which the King lost at buttes with his crossebowe, 13s. 4d.

10th. Item, to a Spanyarde that played the fole, 40s. 20th July. Item, to a woman that broke an heggez by the way, 12d.

5th Augst. Item, to Diego, the Spanish fole, in reward, 20s. 2d Octor. Item, to the shippes boates that brought the King's grace to and fro the ship the Swan,

Item, to the mariners of the same Swan, 6l.

Item, to the mynstrells that played therein,

Item, to Dego, the Spaynyshe foole, in rewarde,

Item, to a Scot, an espye, in reward, 40s.
Item, to one that presented the King with a

mule, 20s.

Item, to one that bought a lamprey, in reward, 4s.

Item, to Harry Poyning, the King's godson, in reward, 20s.

Item, to the fole the Duk of Lancastre.

Item, to finding one hare, 3s. 4d.

25th May. Item, to Pudefay piper in the bagpipes, 6s. 8d.

N. B. The feveral items are not following each other, but copied from various places in the book.

T. ASTLE.

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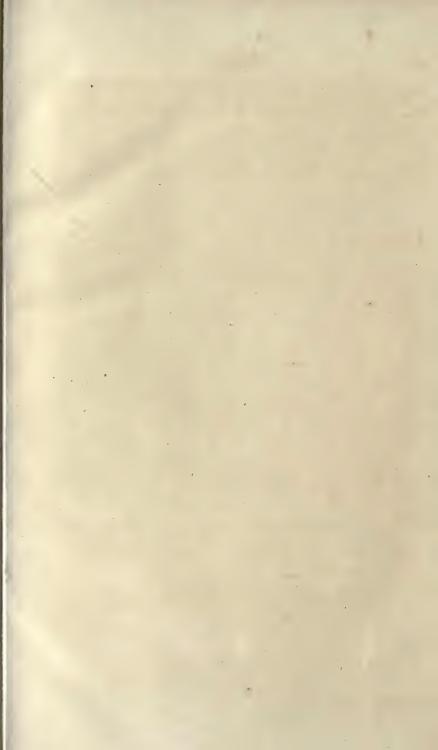
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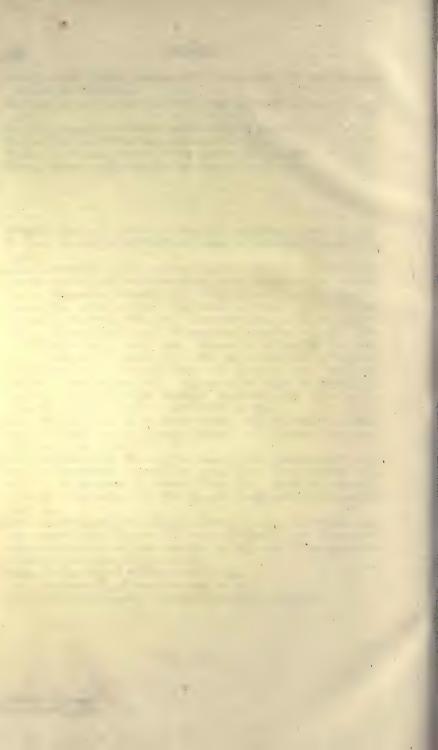
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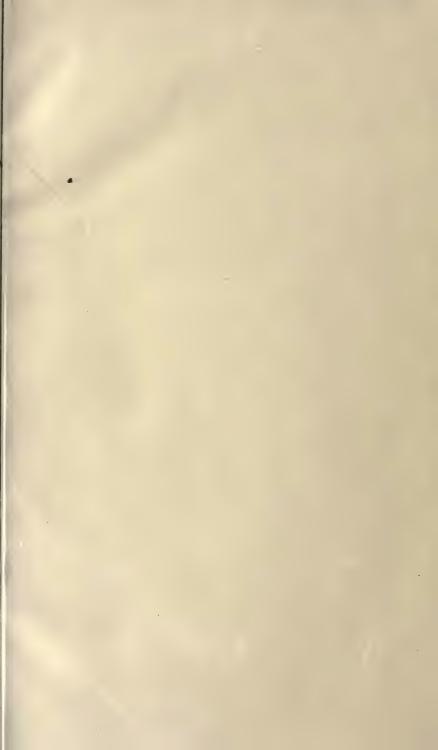
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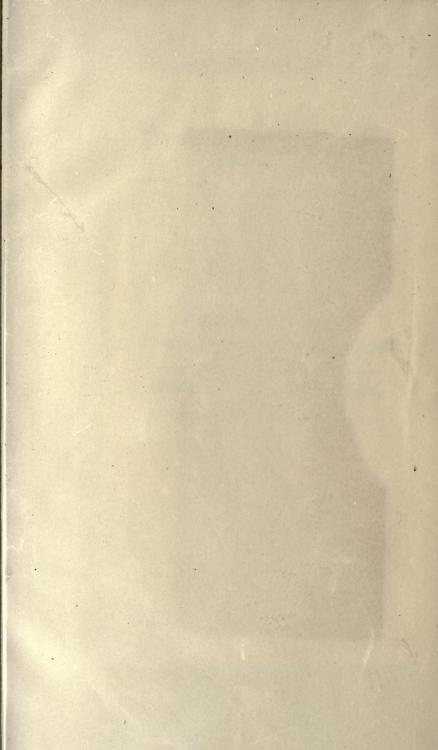














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